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The relationship between leader behavior and teacher morale in uncertain times.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADER BEHAVIOR AND TEACHER MORALE IN UNCERTAIN TIMES

A Dissertation Presented

By

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To Gail, who gave me the faith in myself to believe that I could do it ...

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ABSTRACT

The Relationship Between Leader Behavior and

Teacher Morale in Uncertain Times

(February 1984)

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The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the leader behavior of elementary school principals and the morale of teachers within their buildings during times of uncertainty. A three-part questionnaire consisting of a demographic survey, the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire, and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was employed for data collection. Consistent with earlier research, this study found that the leader behavior of principals continues to be an influential element in teacher morale. What is most striking about the present study, however, is the finding of significantly low morale across the entire sample. One can only speculate that the causes of such a phenomenon are linked to the uncertain environmental factors affecting all teachers. The combined influence of Proposition 2½, criticism of public education and public school teachers, working with no contract, and yearly termination notices appear to have taken their toll. Although the leadership behavior of principals has been shown to be an important factor in teacher morale, it is not by itself sufficiently influential to offset the deleterious effects of a troubled and uncertain environment.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

These are troubled times in public education. One need not look any further than the "Why Johnny Can't" articles in the family magazines, or to the evening news with its horror stories of illiterate high school graduates to know that public education is under attack. Critics question teacher competency, while a tax-weary public watches the credibility of the high school diploma decrease in what--regrettably--appears to be in direct proportion to the increase in school costs. According to a Newsweek poll conducted by the Gallup Organization in the spring of 1981, eighty-nine percent of those questioned felt that teachers should be required to pass a competency test before they are hired (1981). Writing in USA Today, Senator George McGovern stated that public education costs the American taxpayer $120,000,000 annually, yet twenty percent of all high school graduates in 1979 "did not read well enough to become cooks, mechanics, or supply clerks" (1980).

The voice of voter discontent with public education came to the Commonwealth of Massachusetts in the form of Proposition 2½. This tax-slashing legislation, although not leveled specifically against public education, has ravaged not just a few school systems. Within the teaching ranks themselves, there is a growing sense of hopelessness, as scores of bright and enthusiastic young colleagues are unceremoniously terminated. In assessing the effects of Proposition 2½ on Massachusetts

school districts, the State Department of Education reported that 7,782 or 11.8 percent of full-time teachers were eliminated. The future for many who have maintained teaching positions is grim, when each spring not only brings a new class of graduating seniors, but also a new wave of termination notices. Among those who ultimately do remain in the field, there is also a growing sense of despair: Because of school "consolidation," fewer administrative positions are available for those who had been working toward organizational advancement. According to the Massachusetts State Department of Education report cited above, a total of 278 schools across the Commonwealth were closed in the first year of Proposition 2½ (1983). What once had appeared to be a promising career now seems to be a dead-end street. With educators' future security in jeopardy and their self-confidence badly shaken, one should not be surprised to find morale within the teaching ranks at what might be an all-time low.

A review of the literature reveals that, in the establishment of group morale, leader behavior becomes an important factor. During these uncertain times, it seems justified to question what effect the leader behavior of principals has on the morale of teachers within their buildings. If a positive relationship is still found to exist, this finding becomes important, since leader behavior is a variable that can be manipulated. In so manipulating it, educators might begin to overcome the ill effects of the present uncertain climate.

Purpose

The purpose of this study has been to investigate the relationship between the leader behavior of elementary principals and the morale of teachers within their buildings. The study addressed the question: Is leader behavior still an influential factor in the establishment of teacher morale, even in a climate of depression and uncertainty?

Hypotheses

Research Hypothesis: There is a positive relationship between the leader behavior of elementary school principals and the morale of teachers within their buildings even in a climate of uncertainty.

Statistical Hypotheses: The major research hypothesis was tested by accepting or rejecting the following null hypotheses:

1. There is no significant difference between the morale scores of teachers from the sample population and those of established national norms on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO).

2. There is no significant difference between the mean scores (total) on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO) for each school in the study.

3. There is no significant relationship between the scores on the two factors of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the mean score on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO).

In addition to investigating the hypotheses stated above, the study probed teacher morale in light of selected demographic information. This investigation addressed the following questions:

Question 1: What is the relationship between the sex of the teacher respondent and her/his morale score on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire?

Question 2: Is there a significant relationship between the age of the teacher respondents and their morale score on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire?

Question 3: What is the relationship between the number of years of the respondents' teaching experience and their morale score on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire?

Question 4: Is there a significant difference between the morale scores of primary teachers and those of intermediate teachers?

Question 5: Is there a significant difference between the morale scores of classroom teachers and those of teachers who specialize in a particular subject area?

Question 6: What is the relationship between number of advanced credits and degrees obtained and teacher morale scores?

Question 7: What is the relationship between the number of years working with the same principal and teacher morale scores?

Question 8: Is there a significant relationship between the amount of time spent on class preparation and teacher morale scores?

Question 9: Is there a significant relationship between the time teachers spend within their school buildings (before and after the contractual school day) and their morale scores on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire?

Question 10: Is there a significant relationship between the amount of involvement in committee work and teacher morale scores on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire?

Definition of Terms

Morale: The professional interest and enthusiasm that a person displays toward the achievement of individual and group goals in a given job situation (Bentley and Rempel, 1980:2).

Leadership: The process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982:83).

Primary: Refers to grades Kindergarten through third of the traditional elementary school. In the sample school district, these grades comprise schools in and of themselves.

Intermediate: Refers to grades four through six of the traditional elementary schools. These grades, along with Kindergarten, make up intermediate schools in the sample district.

Classroom Teacher: Refers to a teacher whose sole responsibility is the instruction of children in a self-contained classroom, from Kindergarten to grade six. These teachers traditionally teach all subjects.

Other Staff: Refers to non-classroom based professionals. These are teachers specializing in the areas of reading, math, speech, guidance, desegregation, English as a second language, Spanish as a second language, physical education, and special education.

Delimitations

The study was conducted in the nine elementary schools of an urban school district in Western Massachusetts. The climate in which this study was conducted was one that would best be characterized by economic

uncertainty and public criticism. Because of the geographic, economic, and social conditions listed above, and also due to the fact that all participants in the study were self-selected, the research findings are considered generalizable only to similar populations.

Significance of the Study

It was observed earlier that these are troubled times for public education. The most recent bit of evidence that supports this observation was the report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education (Department of Education, 1983) released in Washington on April 26, 1983 (coincidentally, the second day of this two-week study). Entitled "A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform," the report relates that twenty-three million Americans, ten percent of the entire adult population, are functionally illiterate. This figure jumps to thirteen percent among seventeen-year-olds and up, to a shocking forty percent among minority youths. The figures are sobering, the indictment direct. Public schools and public school teachers are failing.

In the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, Proposition 2½ has further added to the self-doubts and uncertainties of public school teachers. One year after the enactment of the tax-slashing legislation there were 278 fewer schools and 7,782 fewer teaching positions.

The school district in which this study was conducted was not immune to the eroding forces of Proposition 2½. According to the State Department of Education, the first year of the tax law witnessed the sample district close three elementary schools and eliminate 87.5

teaching positions. It is also important to note that, during the time of the study, the teachers in the sample population had been working the entire school year without a contract. It was under these seemingly demoralizing conditions that this study investigated the relationship between leadership and morale. It was this unique climate that lended itself to the significance of the study. Under "normal" conditions, the leader behavior of principals has been shown to have an effect on the morale of teachers within their schools. This relationship, however, had not been tested in an uncertain educational environment, such as that which existed during the time of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Investigation into the morale literature reveals a quagmire of verbiage that cannot help but confuse and frustrate the researcher. The plethora of definitions for the term "morale" alone is enough to thwart any serious attempt to understanding its meaning. So confusing is this task that Summers (1965) is led to state that nearly every writer dealing with morale constructs his own definition--and seldom do these definitions agree from one author to the next! Guion (1958), in addressing a symposium on morale in industry, states that the ambiguity of terms surrounding the study of morale has led to verbal chaos. He goes on to say that terms like morale, job satisfaction, and attitude are used interchangeably by some authors, while others insist that these terms contain great differences in meaning. Gregory (1959), also showing frustration with the terminology, asserts that despite preoccupation with the subject, there exists only a hazy notion of what "morale" actually means.

Nowhere is the lexical anarchy of the field of morale more apparent than in its definition. Smith and Wakely (1972) consider morale to be the "worker's instrinsic interest in what he is doing as measured by his work effort, initiative, and satisfaction" (p. 78). Pestonjee (1977) feels that morale is a

> general attitude of workers based upon their faith in the fairness of employer's policies and behavior, adequacy, and immediate leadership, a sense of participation in the organization and an overall belief that the organization is worth working for (p. 86).

Some definitions seem to directly contradict other definitions. For example, Guion (1958) believes that

> morale is the extent to which the individual's needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives that satisfaction as stemming from his total job situation (p. 62).

On the other hand, Parker and Kleemier state that morale is "the attitude held by the individual members of a group which makes them put the achievement of group goals ahead of the achievement of personal goals" (1951:43). This latter view of morale--as an attitude that fosters the acceptance of group or common goals ahead of individual goals--is also shared by Guba (1958), Katzell (1958), Blum and Naylor (1968), and Darr (1968).

Taking into account both individual and group goals, Bentley and Rempel (1980) assert that

> morale refers to the professional interest and enthusiasm that a person displays toward the achivement of individual and group goals in a given job situation (p. 2).

Motivation and Morale. Surprisingly, there is one thing upon which most writers in the field do seem to agree: the importance of the motivational process to morale. In this regard, McFarland states that morale may be viewed as "motivation demonstrated in overt actions toward a goal" (1964:520), while Stogdill observes that "motivation provides potential for morale" (1959:57). If Stogdill is correct, that motivation does provide potential for morale, then what is it that causes motivation? According to Durr, man is motivated by unsatisfied needs. He states that satisfied needs do not motivate behavior but

rather it is "ungratified needs which exert a compelling influence on behavior" (1968:391). Maslow (1951) theorizes that man's needs array themselves in a hierarchy of importance. When basic (lower level) needs are satisfied, then "higher" level needs emerge, in turn motivating the individual's behavior. McDermid (1960) uses Maslow's five level pyramid of needs as the basis for his own discussion of the relationship between needs and motivation:

(1) Physiological needs - include food, drink, elimination, and sexual gratification. According to Maslow and McDermid, these motivate only to the extent that they are ungratified. When these needs are satisfied, they no longer control behavior.

(2) Safety needs - include protection from physical danger, for economic security, for familiar rather than unfamiliar and for religious, philosophic, or scientific ordering of the chaotic into a meaningful whole.

(3) Social needs (Maslow calls them Acceptance needs) - McDermid states that all human beings have a compelling need to relate to other people. However, he goes on to say that because of the breakdown of the family, the isolation of the individual in large urban centers, and our cultural taboo on tenderness, social needs have become a "dominant motivating force in the United States" (p. 95).

(4) Esteem needs - both self-esteem and the esteem of others. Self-esteem includes the desire for personal worth and dignity, for competence, achievement, mastery, independence, and freedom. The need for the esteem of others includes desires for attention and recognition,

for status, prestige and reputation, for importance and power. The author says that although these needs are capable of being met in our society, it takes a great deal of time and effort on the part of the individual to ensure their satisfaction.

(5) Self-realization needs (Maslow calls this level Self-actualization needs) - this is the need of each individual to reach his/her full potential. Maslow describes this as the individual's "desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming" (p. 96).

The causal relationship between unsatisfied needs, motivation, and morale can be seen in Figure 1.

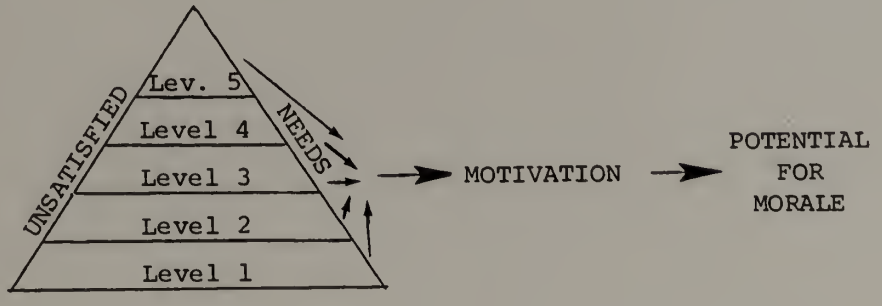

Figure 1.

If unsatisfied needs foster motivation and motivation provides potential for morale, then it would be critical for managers, who are interested in raising the morale of their organization, to understand the needs of their employees. Clearly all five levels of Maslow's pyramid have significance for the work place. Needs Level One (physiological) and Two (safety) can be satisfied primarily by salaries, while needs level Three (social), Four (esteem), and Five (self-realization)

require a considerable amount more of time, sensitivity, trust, and energy on the part of management. These needs depend upon the quality of human interaction in the work setting and would seem to logically include such things as worker-worker relationships, worker-management relationships, involvement of workers in the decision-making process, and the recognized potential for the continuous process of individual growth within the organization. Salaries alone are not enough. In order for high morale to exist, workers must feel that they are needed and appreciated, that they are an important part of the organization. In this regard, Kowitz and Knutson stated that the meeting of individual needs of group members will increase the overall effectiveness of the group and that "the more satisfied the group members are, the greater the degree of group cohesiveness" (1980:113). They go on to say that cohesive groups consisting of satisfied members "invariably achieve their goals more efficiently and effectively than non-cohesive groups" (p. 114).

Group Cohesiveness and Morale. The relationship between group cohesiveness and morale begins to take shape in light of the work of Guba (1958) and Stagner (1958). Guba found that to raise morale in a previously low morale situation, the "administrator must strive to bring organizational expectations and individual needs into congruence" (p. 208). Stagner echoes these conclusions, using slightly different terminology, when he states that managers who wish to raise morale within their organizations need to "create situations in which group and individual goals coincide to the maximum extent possible" (p. 67). From the

aforementioned findings of Kowitz and Knutson (1980) and those of Guba (1958) and Stagner (1958), the following rationale can be constructed:

** If an organizational expectation is the achievement of goals AND

** Cohesive groups attain goals more effectively than non-cohesive groups THEN

** The organization should be interested in developing cohesive groups.

** Group cohesiveness increases with individual member satisfaction THEREFORE

** It would be in the best interests of the organization to strive to satisfy the needs of their employees.

In Guba's terms, then, the organizational expectation of goal attainment and the individual's need to satisfy levels Three, Four, and Five (social, esteem, and self-realization, respectively) of Maslow's hierarchy are in congruence. Accordingly, one might expect that given this circumstance, morale would increase.

One way that management can satisfy the congruent organizational and individual needs is through employee participation in the planning and decision-making processes. McGregor described employee participation as "an individual's mental and emotional involvement in a group situation that encourages him to contribute to group goals and to share responsibility for them" (1960:114). Watters (1962) stated that workers who have more influence on the decisions that affect them and have a sense of identification with both problems and solutions will be more enthusiastic about their jobs than workers who are not afforded such

involvement. Wofford (1971), in a study of employees from various businesses, found that employees whose managers used the teamwork approach had higher morale than those employees who did not work for such managers.

There is some evidence to indicate that the morale of managers themselves can be affected by the amount of participation that they are allowed to have within the organization. Hodgson (1974), in a study of managers' attitudes, found that half the participants claimed that "middle management malaise" was negatively affecting their performance. These same managers also reported that security items, such as higher salaries and better benefits (Maslow's needs levels One/physiological and Two/safety) would not likely improve their managerial performance. Things that these managers said would have a positive effect on their performance included:

- more meaningful and challenging managerial work;
- more communication up and down the line pertaining to executive level decisions and the reasons for them;
- increased organizational decentralization to make possible more delegation of responsibility and authority down the line;
- better approaches to managerial performance appraisal.

All of the items which the managers in this study say would improve their morale or relieve the "middle management malaise" would seem to align themselves on the Third, Fourth, and Fifth levels of needs of Maslow's hierarchy (social, esteem, and self-realization, respectively).

Education and Morale. The field of teaching is not immune from the need to take part in the management process. Leiman, in an unpublished dissertation cited by Ellenburg (1972), found that teachers who participate in the administration of schools have:

- higher morale;
- more positive attitudes toward their principals, their colleagues, and their pupils; and
- higher regard for themselves and for the teaching profession.

In another study reviewed by Ellenburg (1972), Burkett found that the more democratic the school administration, the higher the morale.

Early research in the area of educational morale was conducted under the heading of "job satisfaction." In one of the first such studies, Hoppock (1935) sampled the attitudes of 500 teachers and found that satisfied teachers enjoyed better relationships with their supervisors and colleagues, were more stable emotionally, and taught in cities with populations of over ten thousand people. Other early job satisfaction researchers, McClusky and Strayer (1940), developed an instrument that asked teachers to write down experiences that caused them extreme satisfaction or dissatisfaction. They found that the investigation of job satisfaction alone was extremely difficult because almost every aspect of a teacher's life is involved in their adjustment to their job. The researchers stated that there were too many influences beyond the control of the investigator. Chase (1951) isolated four major areas that he said affected teacher satisfaction. These areas were: freedom in planning work, adequacy of salary, participation in

educational and personnel policy planning, and feelings about the quality of leadership. Bidwell (1955) focused the attention of his investigation on a single factor: the relationship between leadership and morale. He accomplished this by asking teachers to categorize their administrators' behavior as being either democratic, autocratic, or laissez-faire. His findings indicate that teachers who perceive administrative behavior to be consistent with their expectations of that behavior will tend to be satisfied with their teaching situation.

The relationship between teacher and principal is a recurring theme in the literature of educational morale. Linder (1955) found that lack of leadership, inadequate evaluation, lack of policy, and poor faculty meetings were the leading causes of low morale according to teachers. Silverman (1957) listed no fewer than sixty-nine items which he found to be important in influencing morale. He states that the most significant of these items are those dealing with personality and human relations. Blocker and Richardson (1963) report that in the unpublished dissertations of O'Connor (1958), Ross (1960), Cohen (1960), and Roth (1966), principals and supervisors were found to be the key morale-producing agents in the educational environment. Ellenburg (1972) reports that Hood (1965) found that although personal factors have a great effect on the morale of teachers, the principal appeared to be the single most important morale-effecting element within the professional setting.

Morale Instruments. Throughout the early years of educational morale research, the lack of appropriate, validated instruments had been a problem. Guba (1958) and his research associates reported the

development and use of two instruments: (1) the CES Battery, and (2) the Teacher Behavior Rating Scale (TBRS). The CES Battery is a questionnaire eliciting self-ratings from teachers concerning their degree of (C) confidence in the leadership of the principal, (E) their own level of effectiveness, and (S) their own level of satisfaction. The TBRS is an instrument consisting of sixty-three items which seek to know to what extent most of the teachers in his/her school utilized the behavior described. A few example items follow:

(To what extent do most teachers in your school...)

- Volunteer to perform extra duties only when these are compensated by extra pay?
- Work cooperatively with other teachers, the principal, or appropriate supervisors in the selection of textbooks?

It was not until 1964, however, that an instrument dealing with educational morale was first validated. The Purdue Teacher Morale Inventory (PTMI), developed in 1961 by Bentley and Rempel, was revised in 1964 on the basis of comprehensive factor analysis studies (Rempel and Bentley, 1964). Used extensively in morale research, this instrument is presently called the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO) to avoid reference to morale in the title. The current edition was revised in 1980 (Bentley and Rempel, 1980). Consisting of 100 statements, the present form of the PTO asks teachers to agree, probably agree, probably disagree, or disagree with each of the statements. Categories sampled included the following:

1. Teacher rapport with principal
2. Satisfaction with teaching
3. Rapport among teachers
4. Teacher salary
5. Teacher load
6. Curriculum issues
7. Teacher status
8. Community support of education
9. School facilities and services
10. Community pressure

In addition to the PTO, another instrument developed during this time was the School Survey (SS) (Coughlin, 1970). Piloted in 1964, this questionnaire also recognizes the complexity of morale and analyzes its dimensions according to thirteen factors. These factors cluster around the following four categories:

Administrative Operations

Working Relationships

School Effectiveness

Career Fulfillment

The thirteen factors of the SS and the ten factors of the PTO are quite similar (Coughlin, 1970).

Leadership

Since the development of the PTO there has been a growing body of research that has begun to identify the role of the principal and his leadership style as being a key factor in the establishment of teacher

morale. Gordon (1980) tells us that the word "leadership" did not even appear in the English language until around the year 1800. Curiously, Stogdill (1974) suggested that preoccupation with the subject of leadership seems to occur only in countries of Anglo-Saxon heritage. This preoccupation becomes apparent when one encounters the sheer number of definitions for the word leadership in the literature. Blackmar saw leadership as "centralization of effort in one person as an expression of the power of all" (1911:627). Bowden equated leadership with strength of personality and after studying student leaders stated, "The amount of personality attributed to any individual may not be unfairly estimated by the degree of influence he can exert upon others" (1926:159). Tead saw leadership as the exercise of influence, and his definition holds that leadership is "the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal which they come to find desirable" (1935:9). This view of leadership is echoed by Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massrik (1961), but they add that the influence potential is increased or decreased, depending on the situation.

There are those theorists who define leadership in behavioral terms. Behaviorists are interested in definitions that provide a basis for objective observation, description, measurement, and experimentation. Hemphill, one such theorist, suggested that "leadership may be defined as the behavior of an individual while he is involved in directing group activities" (1949:226). Shartle, another member of the behavioral school, defined a leadership act as "one which results in others' acting or responding in a shared direction" (1956:17).

At present, according to Hersey and Blanchard, "most management writers agree that leadership is the process of influencing the achievement of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation" (1982:83). These same writers went on to stress the difference between leadership and management, the latter which they define as "working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish organizational goals" (p. 3). They submitted that leadership is a broader concept than management and it occurs any time one attempts to influence the behavior of others, regardless of the reason. Management, on the other hand, is considered a special kind of leadership, one in which the attainment of organization goals is paramount.

Leadership Traits. Early research in the field of leadership was primarily concerned with the identification of particular leadership traits. These theorists believed that the leader was a person endowed with unique qualities, superior qualities that made him different from followers. These essential leadership qualities included physical characteristics, energy, personality, and intelligence (Stogdill, 1974). It was believed that if these inborn characteristics could then be identified and measured, potential leaders could then be screened from non-leaders. Leadership training would be provided for only those with the prerequisite characteristics (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982). In his review of the literature involving the trait approach, however, Jennings (1961) concluded that after fifty years of study, not one trait has been identified that can be used to discriminate leaders from non-leaders.

Scientific Management. In the early 1900's Fredrick Winslow Taylor led a movement that was to influence management-worker relations for decades. Scientific management, as it was called, was a product of the machine-conscious world of the late industrial revolution. Taylor, attempting to improve the efficiency of a worker performing a particular job, conducted time and motion studies. From these studies he was able to prescribe the most technologically efficient manner of performing that particular task. The function of leadership under the scientific management philosophy was to create and maintain performance criteria to meet the goals of the organization. There was little or no regard for the needs of the employee to the extent that the movement has been accused of treating men as machines. March stated that Taylor had attempted to "transform a general-purpose mechanism into a more efficient special-purpose mechanism" (1963:10). March went on to criticize Taylor for "describing the characteristics of the human organism as one might describe a relatively simple machine for performing a comparatively simple task" (p. 11).

Human Relations Movement. In the 1920's and 1930's there came a backlash to the methods of the scientific management theorists. The new philosophy, known as the human relations movement, had its beginnings with the work of Elton Mayo in the Hawthorne, Illinois plant of the Western Electric Company. From their studies at Hawthorne, Mayo and his associates from the Harvard School of Business found that the production of workers increased when they perceived that their opinions and feelings were valued by management. Workers began to feel that management viewed them

as important; their participation in the operation and future of the company was respected (Mayo, 1933).

The implications of the Hawthorne studies for business were great. Prior to the studies, work in American industry was humuliating--men were treated as machines. It became more apparent that organizations are built around workers and therefore human feelings and attitudes are vital considerations (Buchele, 1977). The human relations theorists held that in addition to finding the best technological methods to improve production, management must also be concerned with human interests. According to these theorists, then, the function of the leader was to strike a balance between the goals of the organization and the needs of the individual within the organization (Stogdill, 1974). In sharp contrast to the production or task orientation of scientific management, the human relations movement was primarily concerned with people. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), the recognition of these two concepts, production orientation and people orientation, would dominate the management literature to this day.

Authorization and Democratic Leadership. The concept of production or task orientation and people orientation is associated with authoritarian and democratic leadership styles, respectively. According to McGregor (1966), the difference in the two styles is based on the assumptions that each holds concerning human nature. The authoritarian style of leader behavior, that which McGregor calls Theory X, is based on the assumption that people are basically lazy and are primarily interested in receiving the highest wage for the least amount of work.

Authoritarian leaders dictate policy and view their own organizational power as being inherent in the position that they hold. Hostrop stated that managers who hold this view believe that "people have to be persuaded, rewarded, controlled, and their activities must be directed toward organizational goals" (1975:146).

Unlike his authoritarian colleague, the democratic leader (McGregor's Theory Y) operates on the assumption that his own power is granted to him by the members of the group that he leads. This style of leader believes that people are basically self-directed, creative, and willing to work. The democratic leader brings workers into the planning and decision-making process, enabling them to identify more closely with the organization. McGregor stated that the "task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objectives" (1966:15).

Many researchers, including Shaw (1955), Argyle, Gardner, and Ciote (1958), Indik, Georgapolis, and Seashore (1961), and Likert (1961) have investigated the levels of group performance under authoritarian and democratic leadership. According to Stogdill (1974), this research has generated no clear evidence to indicate that either autocratic or democratic supervision can increase productivity; however, he continues, member satisfaction is higher with the latter leadership style.

Broadening the discussion of the two seemingly opposed leadership styles, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) conceptualized a continuum between the extremes of autocratic and democratic styles.

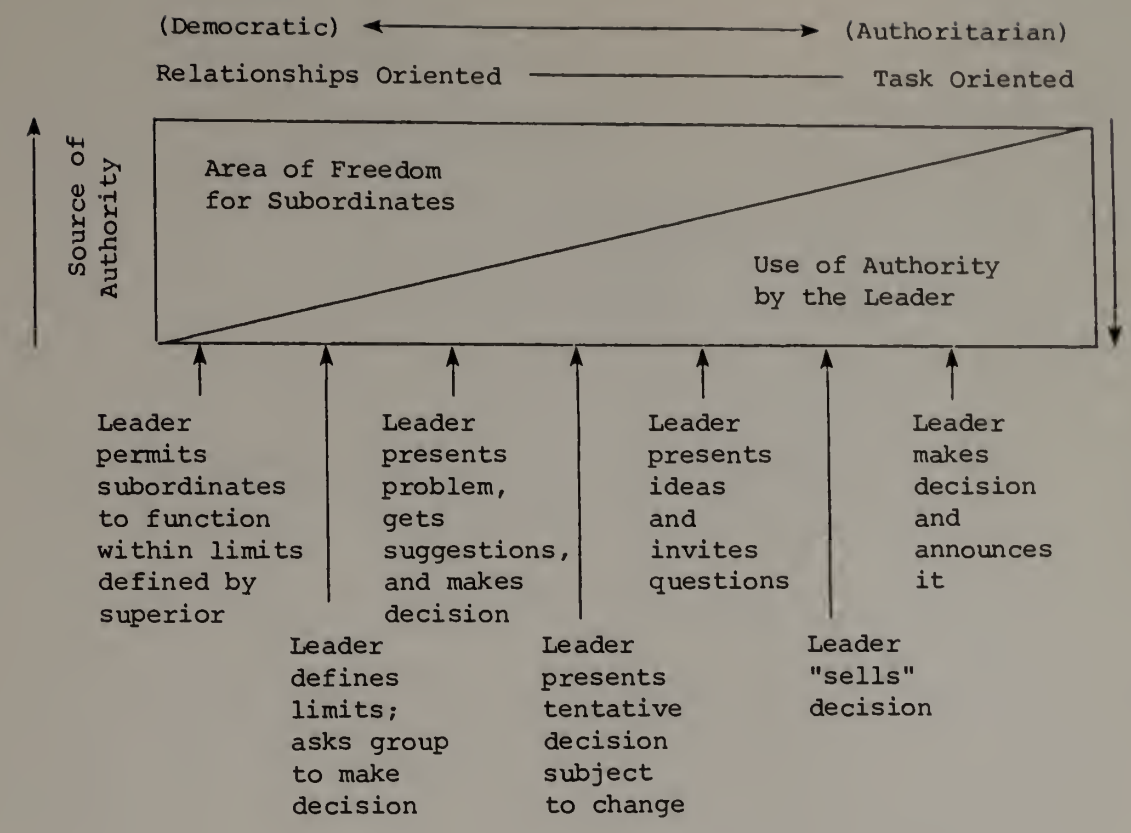

Figure 2. Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Continuum of Leader Behavior (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958:96).

Leaders at the autocratic end of the continuum tend to be task-oriented and use their power to influence their followers, while at the opposite end the democratic leader is group-oriented and gives his/her followers certain freedom in their work. As can be seen in Figure 2, the authors theorize graduated styles of leadership, each comprised of varying degrees of the two polar positions/styles.

Ohio State Leadership Studies. In 1945 the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University initiated a series of studies that would profoundly influence the study of leadership and management. Organized

by Shartle (Stogdill, 1974), the Ohio State studies identified two dimensions of leader behavior: (1) Initiating Structure and (2) Consideration. Initiating structure refers to:

> the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure (Halpin, 1966:86).

Consideration, on the other hand, refers to

> the behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff (Halpin, 1966:86).

To gather data for their investigation, the Ohio State staff developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDG), discussed in a later section of this paper.

Perhaps the most significant finding of the Ohio State studies was not the identification of the two dimensions, Initiating Structure and Consideration, but rather the realization that these were two separate and distinct concepts. The researchers found that a high score on one dimension did not necessitate a low score on the other. Leader behavior was in fact a mix of both dimensions. Rather than plotting leader behavior on a single continuum, researchers came to employ two separate axes to describe the two leadership dimensions. To illustrate the various combinations of Initiating Structure (task behavior) and Consideration (relationship behavior) the Ohio State leadership quadrants were developed (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982).

Hersey and Blanchard (1970) applied Life Cycle Theory to the Ohio State Leadership quadrants. They suggested that leader behavior moves from one quadrant to another in a pattern that is dependent on the

maturity of the group that is being led. The authors hypothesized that an

> appropriate style for working with very immature followers is depicted in Quadrant 1 (High Structure/Low Consideration), while styles represented by Quadrants 2 (High Structure/High Consideration) and 3 (High Consideration/Low Structure) seem appropriate for moderately mature followers, and Quadrant 4 (Low Structure/Low Consideration) tends to be a style appropriate for very mature followers (p. 305).

In other words, a leader relaxes his/her control and becomes friendlier as his/her group matures. Accordingly, the truly mature group can function to a certain extent without a great deal of leader influence.

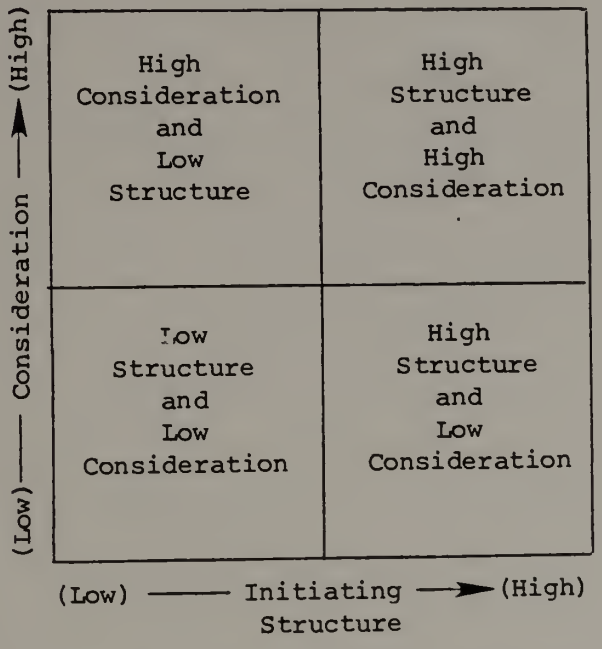

Figure 3. The Ohio State Leadership Quadrants (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982:95).

The Managerial Grid. A hybrid of the Ohio State leadership quadrants is the Managerial Grid. Conceptualized by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in

1964, the Grid employs two axes: (1) Concern for People, and (2) Concern for Production. These two axes are scaled from 1, representing minimum concern, to 9, which represents maximum concern. The numbers between 1 and 9 represent degrees of concern on that particular axis. The authors described the five major grid styles as follows (Blake and Mouton, 1979:12):

> 9,1 Authority-Obedience: In the lower right-hand corner of the grid a maximum concern (9) for production is combined with a minimum concern (1) for people. A manager acting under these assumptions concentrates on maximizing production by exercising power and authority and achieving control over people through compliance.
>
> 1,9 Country Club Management: Located in the top left-hand corner, this style shows a minimum concern (1) for production, coupled with a maximum concern (9) for people. Primary attention is placed on promoting good feelings among colleagues and subordinates. These managers maintain harmony at any cost even to the extent of diminished productivity.
>
> 1,1 Impoverished Management: A minimum concern for both production and people is represented by 1,1 in the lower left corner. The 1,1 oriented manager does only the minimum required to remain within the organization. These managers do not take sides and rarely express convictions. Their intention is to avoid being conspicuous or even noticed.
>
> 5,5 Organization Man Management: Appropriately located in the center of the grid the 5,5 style represents moderate concern for both production and people. Blake and Mouton describe this as the 'middle-of-the-road theory or the go-along-to-get along assumptions which are revealed in conformity to the status quo.' They go on to say that 'when initiative is called for, he prefers to rely on traditions and past practices or the judgments of others. He rarely moves out front until others have established a new direction or indicated the safest way to go.'

> 9,9 Team Management: Production and people concerns are integrated at a high level in the upper right-hand corner representing the 9,9 style of managing. This is the team approach. It is goal-oriented and seeks to gain results of high quantity and quality through participation, involvement, commitment, and conflict-solving.

Figure 4 illustrates the Managerial Grid with brief explanation of the five major leadership styles. (See Figure 4, page 29.)

Blake and Mouton considered 9,9 to be the single best style of leadership and used it as the ideal for their organization and management programs. In support of Blake and Mouton's belief in the superiority of the 9,9 style, Halpin (1966) found that effective leadership behavior is characterized by high scores on both Initiating Structure and Consideration. Figure 5 (page 30) shows the combination of the Ohio State leadership quadrants used by Halpin and the Managerial Grid.

The Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model. Conceptualized by Hersey and Blanchard (1982), this model adds a third dimension, "effectiveness," to the two dimensions Initiating Structure and Consideration. Instead of the terms used in the Ohio State studies, these authors substitute the terms "task behavior" and "relationship behavior." According to Hersey and Blanchard, the addition of the effectiveness dimension is an attempt to integrate the concepts of leader style with the situational demands of a specific environment.

Hersey and Blanchard contended that the effectiveness of a leadership style depends on the situation in which it is used and that any of the basic styles may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation. They went on to say that what makes a style effective or ineffective

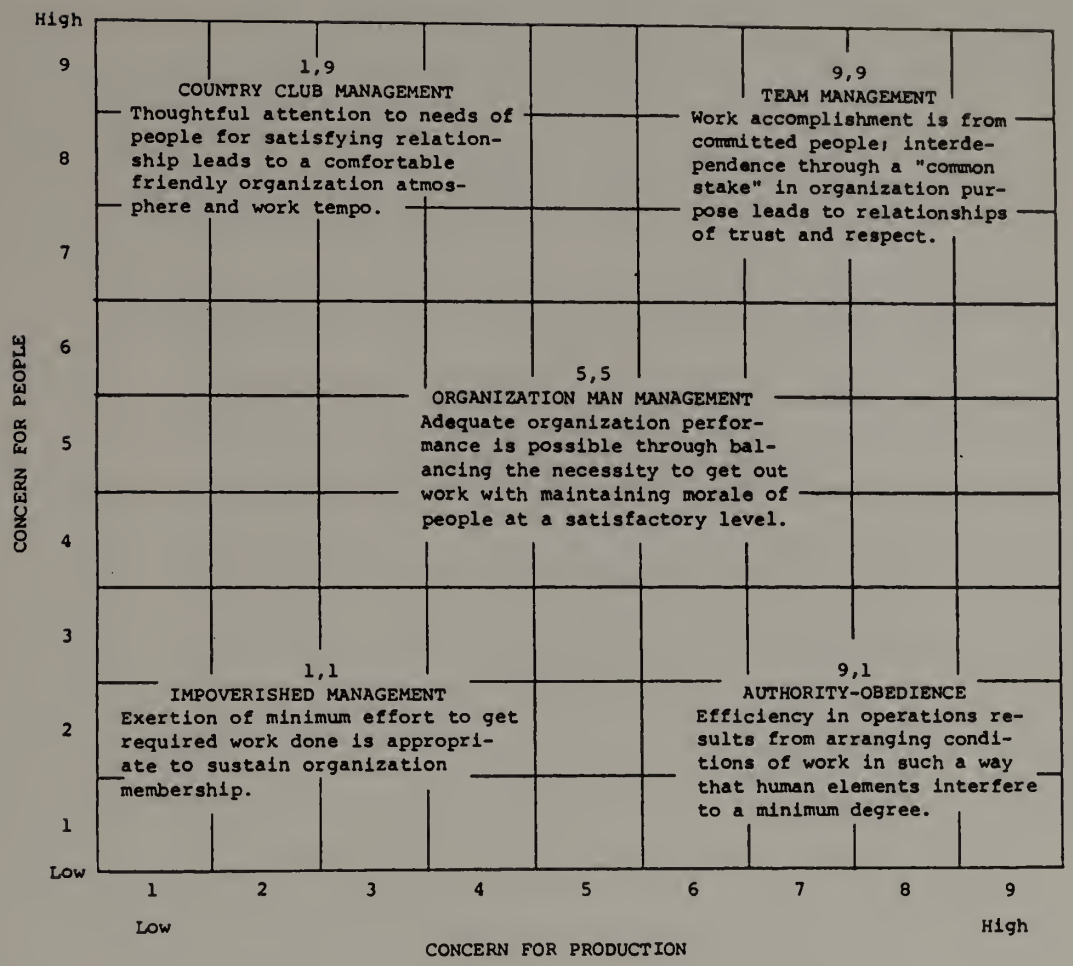

Figure 4. The Managerial Grid (Blake & Mouton, 1978:11).

is its appropriateness in a given situation or environment. In their model the authors represented effectiveness as a continuum ranging from extremely effective to extremely ineffective. The continuum was then divided into quartiles ranging on the effectiveness side from +1 to +4, and on the ineffectiveness side from -1 to -4. Figure 6 illustrates the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model.

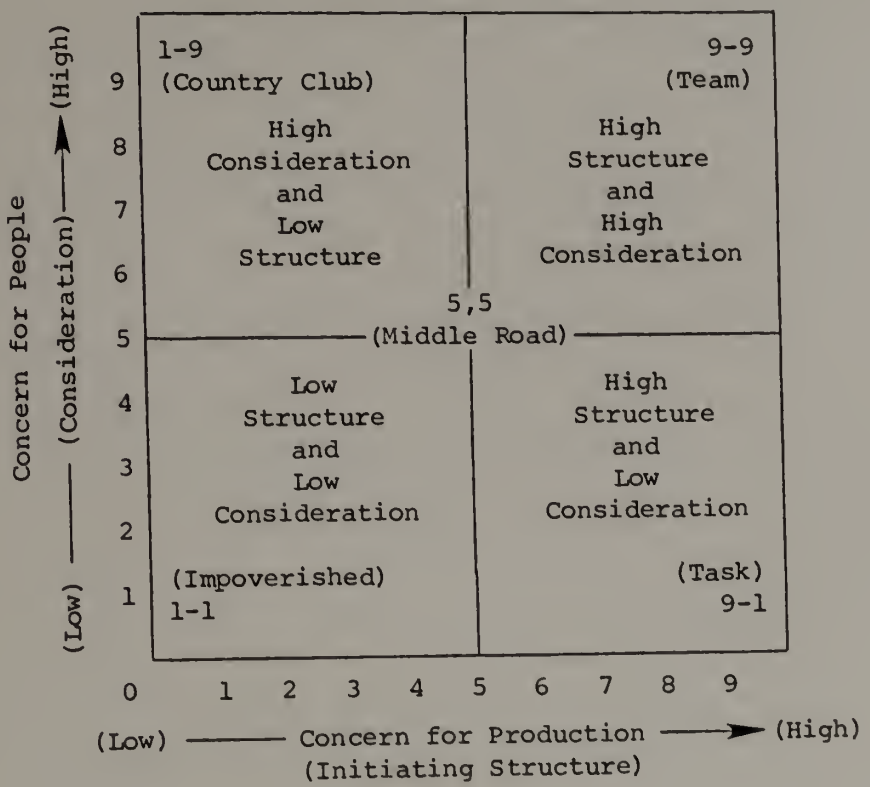

Figure 5. The combined Ohio State leadership quadrants and the Managerial Grid (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982:97).

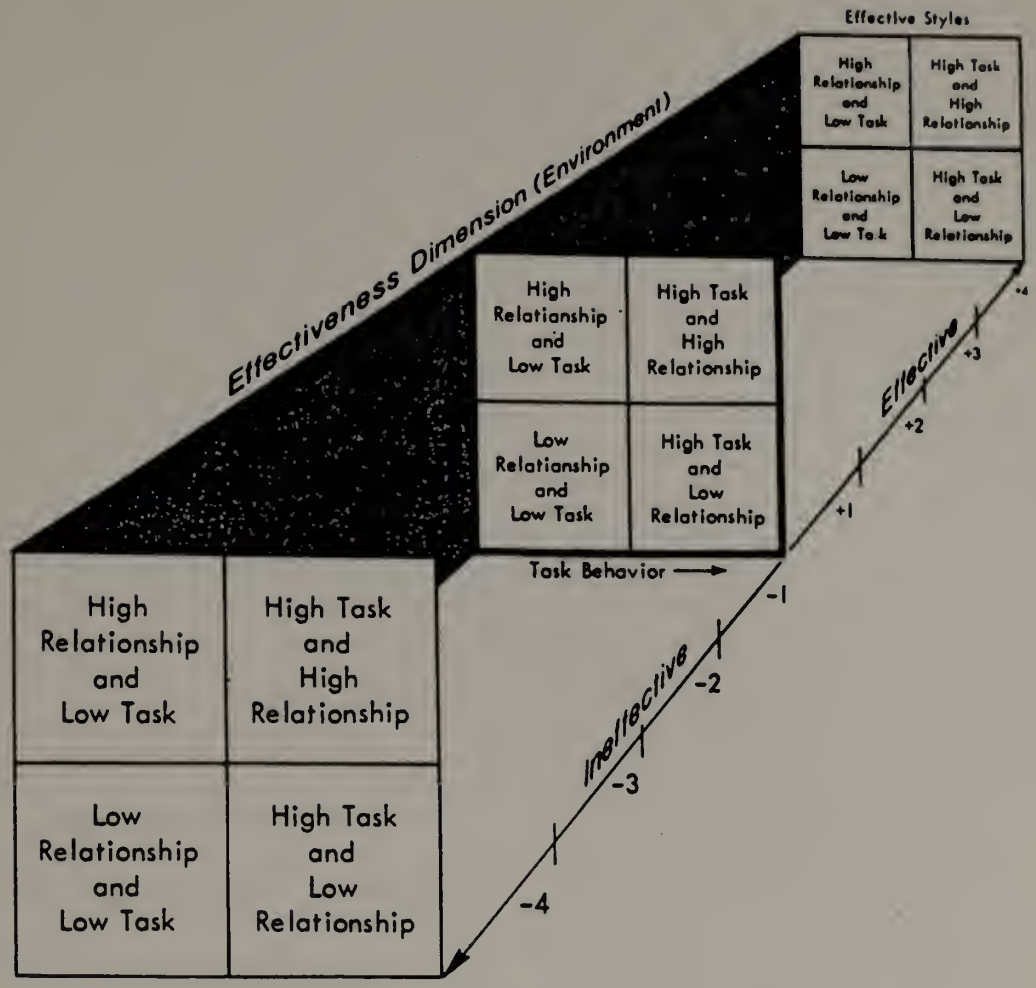

Figure 6. The Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982:106).

Leadership research of the last twenty years has witnessed the continued investigation of leadership traits and the growth of situational leadership theory. Patinka (1979) reports that although leaders are not exactly born, they are made at an early age by their experiences up to and including high school. He says that indications are that there exist basic characteristics in people which can readily develop into necessary leadership qualities under the proper conditions. He goes on to say that if these basic ingredients are missing, training for leadership might be misplaced. House and Baetz (1979) report that Ghiselli (1971) found that the traits of intelligence, supervisory ability, initiative, self-assurance, and individuality relate to the organizational level and performance ratings of the managers that he studied. Successful managers possessed those traits to a greater degree than did less successful managers.

House and Baetz also report that five studies, since the time of Stogdill's 1974 review, show that leaders whose IQ is higher than that of subordinates have a significant advantage. However, if there are extreme disparities between the IQ of leaders and followers, they tend to militate against the exercise of leadership. Interestingly, Fiedler (1979) found a negative correlation between intelligence and performance when interpersonal stress with higher level managers is high. He says that this implies that "intelligence is actually detrimental to performance" and that it "hinders the individual from doing his job" (Fiedler, 1979:22).

Contingency Theory. One of the situational models that has been developed over the past two decades is Contingency Theory. Advanced by Fiedler (1967) and Fiedler and Chemers (1974), the theory uses the interaction of leader personality (as measured by the Least Preferred Co-worker scale (LPC)--described later) and situational variables to predict effective and ineffective leaders. Defined as the extent to which the situation gives a leader influence over subordinate performance, this situational variable is called either "situational favorability" or "situational control." The following situational aspects are used in the measure of situational control:

1. Leader-Member Relations. The leader who has loyal and supportive subordinates can depend on them to respond to his direction. On the other hand, the leader who is disliked by his subordinates must be careful that they do not ignore his directions or subvert his policies.

2. Position Power. The leader who is able to administer rewards and punishments, to increase subordinate compliance with his wishes and policies has situational position power. Leaders without position power have to rely on other sources of influence over subordinates.

3. Task Structure. A task is highly structured when there are detailed descriptions of the final product, standard operating procedures that are proven effective, and it is easy for the leader to evaluate how well the work is being performed. Conversely, when the task is unstructured, the leader may not know the best way to proceed and cannot easily tell how subordinates are performing. Subordinates may disagree

with the leader as to the best task procedures and can circumvent the leader's directions.

Fiedler's research indicates that leader-member relations are the most important of the three determinants of situational control, followed by task structure and, finally, position power. A situational control index is generated by combining and weighting ratings of these three situational aspects. When the situational control index is very high or very low, leaders with low scores on the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) instrument will be more effective than leaders with high LPC_scores. When there is intermediate situational control, leaders with high LPC scores will be more effective. High LPC scores indicate a leader whose primary motive is to have close, interpersonal relationships with subordinates. Low LPC scores indicate a leader whose primary motivation is the achievement of task objectives.

Another of the contingency models is the Path-Goal theory of leadership. Articulated by House (1971), this theory attempts to explain how the behavior of a leader influences the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates. The theory holds that the motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment. The leader is responsible for making the path to these pay-offs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing barriers and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction along the way. The latest version of path-goal theory (House and Mitchell, 1974) includes four categories of leader behavior:

1. Supportive Leadership--similar to Consideration.

2. Directive Leadership--similar to Initiating Structure.

3. Participative Leadership--consulting with subordinates and taking their opinions and suggestions into account when making decisions.

4. Achievement-oriented Leadership--setting challenging goals, seeking performance improvements, emphasizing excellence in performance, and showing confidence that subordinates will attain high standards.

Yukl (1981) reports that Path-Goal Theory has some serious conceptual deficiencies that limit its utility. However, he goes on to say that in the coming years, it is likely that the theory will continue to be refined and extended to make it less ambiguous and more comprehensive.

Rational Decision-Making Theory. Proposed by Vroom and Yetton (1973), this theory is intended to be a diagnostic tool with which leaders can choose the appropriate decision-making method for a given problem. The decision-making methods prescribed by this theory range from autocratic decision-making by the leader alone, to various degrees of subordinate participation and group decision-making. The model specifies seven decision rules that are intended to guide a leader in selecting the most appropriate decision model. House and Baetz (1979) state that Vroom and Yetton's theory is the first systematic integration of prior research findings concerning participative decision-making. They go on to say that it represents an advance in conceptualizing situational factors that determine the degrees to which various levels of participative decision-making will be effective.

Substitutes for Leadership. Finally, Kerr and Jermier (1978) present a somewhat radical approach to leadership when they suggest that there are situations in which hierarchical leadership is unncessary. In their model, they identify situational aspects that reduce the importance of managerial leadership. The model draws a distinction between two kinds of situational variables: "substitutes" and "neutralizers." Substitutes for leadership make the leader behavior unnecessary or redundant. These include subordinate ability and training, the characteristics of the task, and organizational characteristics such as the cohesiveness of the work group. Neutralizers are those characteristics of the task or organization that prevent the leader from acting in a specified way, or that counteract the effects of his behavior. An example of a neutralizer might be when a leader has no control over incentive rewards to subordinates. The lack of subordinate desire for any rewards is also a leadership neutralizer.

Yukl (1981) concludes that the contribution of Kerr and Jermier has been to suggest the possibility that leaders, under some circumstances, are redundant and unnecessary. In addition, they initiated a systematic investigation of the aspects of the situation that may serve as substitutes and neutralizers. They go on to say that since this model was only recently formulated, much more research is necessary.

Leadership Instruments. As was mentioned in an earlier section, one of the significant developments of the Ohio State leadership studies was the construction of an instrument to describe leader behavior. Developed

by Hemphill and Coons (Halpin, 1969), the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) is the product of extensive factor analysis which identified Initiating Structure and Consideration as the two fundamental dimensions of leader behavior.

The LBDQ is composed of a series of short, descriptive statements of ways in which leaders may behave. Members of the group being surveyed are asked to indicate the frequency with which their leader engages in the behavior under consideration by checking: always, often, occasionally, seldom, or never. The original form of the LBDQ contained fifteen items for each dimension, Initiating Structure and Consideration. Sample items that key on Initiating Structure include:

He makes his attitudes clear to the staff;

He rules with an iron hand (scored negatively);

He criticizes poor work.

Example items included under the Consideration dimension are:

He does personal favors for staff members;

He finds time to listen to staff members;

He keeps to himself (scored negatively).

The original LBDQ has been used extensively in education, industry, and the military.

Throughout its many years of use the LBDQ has not been without its critics. Korman, one such critic, stated that there was "almost no evidence on the predictive validity of 'Consideration' and 'Initiating Structure' nor on the kinds of situational moderators which might affect such validity" (1966:360). In defense of the LBDQ, Kerr and Schriesheim (1974) pointed out that although Korman's review appeared in 1966, only

one of the studies he cited was published after 1964. These authors went on to say that since 1964, studies had been designed to recognize the influence of situational moderating variables. Other articles defending the use of the LBDQ can be found in Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy, and Stogdill (1974) and Schriesheim and Stogdill (1975).

In 1963 Stogdill developed the LBDQ-XII. On this form of the questionnaire ten additional dimensional subscales have been added to the original Initiating Structure and Consideration. However, there seems to be some question as to the significance of the additional dimensions in the expanded form. According to Sergrovanni, Metzcus, and Burden, "Although Stogdill's new LBDQ-XII purports to measure twelve dimensions of leadership behavior, Brown found that six of the dimensions loaded on Factor 1--Systems Orientation (Initiating Structure) and six load on Factor 2--Persons Orientation (Consideration)" (1969: 64). It appears that although the LBDQ-XII attempts to identify twelve distinct leader behavior dimensions, in reality it is still dealing with only two: Initiating Structure and Consideration.

An unusual method for determining leader orientation is the "esteem for the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC)." Devised by Fiedler, this instrument determines whether the leader is task or relationship-oriented. The LPC asks the respondent to think of the person with whom he/she can work least well, and to rate that person on a number of 8-point bi-polar-adjective scales. On each item the respondent selects a position (number) between 1 and 8 to rate the person selected in such areas as: pleasant-unpleasant, friendly-unfriendly, helpful-frustrating, supportive-hostile, and efficient-inefficient. To determine task or

relationship orientation, all the numbers selected are added together. This total score is then interpreted as follows. The lower the score, the greater the task orientation; higher scores on the other hand indicate relationship orientation. Thus, task-oriented leaders tend to give their least preferred co-worker a more negative evaluation than a relationship-oriented leader (Graen, Alvares, Orris, and Martella, 1970).

Coleman (1981) reported the development of an instrument called the Organizational Climate Survey (OCS). The purpose of this survey is to provide data for plotting leader style on Coleman's own "Administrative Grid." This grid, similar to that conceived by Blake and Mouton, is a thirty-six cell matrix built upon the two axes People Orientation and Task Orientation. Factors which key to the Task dimension include:

Leader Goal Orientation;

Training and Development;

Leadership;

Supervision.

The People-Oriented dimension is constructed of the following factors:

Self-Concept;

Self-Image;

Personal Freedom.

At the time Coleman presented his paper (1981) which describes the OCS, the instrument was still undergoing field testing and was not ready for general use.

The relationship between leadership and morale is well-documented. The works of Baehr and Renck (1958), Stogdill (1959), Stewart (1963),

and Ellenburg (1972) all indicated that leadership is the single most important element affecting group morale. Leader orientation (concern for production-concern for people) also seems to be a crucial factor in the direction (high or low) of organization morale. Pestonjee (1977) found that employee-oriented supervisors lead groups with higher morale than production-oriented managers. However, it seems to be a combination of the two dimensions, concern for production and concern for people, that is most conducive to high morale. Gregory stated that

> when both employees and management gain a feeling of well-being by working together on common production goals, we have production-oriented morale--a condition in which the unique ambitions of all concerned are realized (1959:39).

This view was echoed twenty-two years later by Garin and Cooper (1981) who stated that differences in supervisory style are directly related to differences in employee morale. They went on to say that a leadership style that demonstrates concern for employee satisfaction without sacrificing production goals is the most conducive style for both morale and production. Thus it would seem that the leadership styles represented by Ohio State's "High Structure and High Consideration" quadrant and by Blake and Mouton's 9,9 grid style are the most appropriate to insure both high morale and high production.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES USED IN COLLECTING AND TREATING DATA

Sample

The present investigation was conducted in the nine elementary schools (five primary, kindergarten through third grade; four intermediate, kindergarten plus fourth through sixth grade) of an urban school district located in Western Massachusetts. Although randomization of the sample population is virtually impossible in a study such as this, at the time of the study a unique situation existed within the district's elementary schools which contributed to staff homogeneity. That is, in September of 1981, a response to the fiscal constraints of Proposition 2½ and the implementation of a desegregation plan saw the consolidation of twelve traditional (kindergarten through sixth grade) elementary schools into the present organizational pattern of five primary and four intermediate schools. As a result of this reorganization, more than half of the district's elementary teaching staff had been relocated in different buildings. The similarity between school faculties is presented in chapter four through the use of frequency distribution of demographic variables such as sex, years of teaching experience, etc.

Research Design and Instrumentation

Teachers in the sample were asked to respond to a three part questionnaire. Part 1, a demographic survey (see appendix), asked for the traditional descriptive information found in surveys of this type. This

information was used to answer research questions one through seven referred to in chapter one. In addition, the demographic survey included three questions that were designed to probe some commonly held notions concerning the behavior of high morale individuals. These questions dealt with the amount of time and energy expended by teachers on professional tasks.

Part 2 of the questionnaire was the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). A product of the Ohio State Leadership Studies, this instrument assesses two fundamental dimensions of leader behavior: Initiating Structure (emphasis on goals, tasks, production) and Consideration (concerns for member satisfaction). Developed from 1,790 original items, the instrument in its present form contains forty items, only thirty of which are scored, fifteen for each of the two leadership dimensions. Referred to as buffer items (Dipboye, 1978), the ten unscored items have been retained in the questionnaire to maintain comparable conditions of administration to those used in standardizing the questionnaire, as suggested by Halpin (1957). The possible range of scores on each dimension is zero to sixty.

As reported in the manual (Halpin, 1957), the estimated reliability of the instrument using the split-half method is .83 for Initiating Structure scores, and .92 for the Consideration scores, when corrected for attenuation. In the research under discussion here, alphas were found of .92 for Initiating Structure and .91 for Consideration.

The final section of the questionnaire, Part 3, was the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO). This instrument reflects the

multi-dimensionality of morale by identifying ten factors that influence teacher morale. These ten factors are described in the PTO manual (1980:4) as follows:

Factor 1: "Teacher Rapport with Principal" deals with the teacher's feelings about the principal--her/his professional competency, interest in teachers and their work, ability to communicate, and her/his skill in human relations.

Factor 2: "Satisfaction with Teaching" pertains to teacher relationship with students and feelings of satisfaction with teaching. According to this factor, the high morale teacher loves to teach, feels competent in her/his job, enjoys her/his students, and believes in the future of teaching as an occupation.

Factor 3: "Rapport Among Teachers" focuses on teachers' relationships with other teachers. The items here solicit the teacher's opinion regarding the cooperation, preparation, ethics, influence, interests, and competency of her/his peers.

Factor 4: "Teacher Salary" pertains primarily to the teacher's feelings about salaries and salary policies. Are salaries based on teacher competency? Do they compare favorably with salaries in other systems? Are salary policies administered fairly and justly, and do teachers participate in the development of these policies?

Factor 5: "Teacher Load" deals with such matters as record-keeping, clerical work, "red tape," community demands on teacher time, extra-curricular load, and keeping up-to-date professionally.

Factor 6: "Curriculum Issues" solicits teacher reactions to the adequacy of the school program in meeting student needs, in providing for individual differences, and in preparing students for effective citizenship.

Factor 7: "Teacher Status" samples feelings about the prestige, security, and benefits afforded by teaching. Several of the items refer to the extent to which the teacher feels she/he is an accepted member of the community.

Factor 8: "Community Support of Education" deals with the extent to which the community understands and is willing to support a sound educational program.

Factor 9: "School Facilities and Services" relates to the adequacy of facilities, supplies and equipment, and the efficiency of the procedures for obtaining materials and services.

Factor 10: "Community Pressures" gives special attention to community expectations with respect to the teacher's personal standards, her/his participation in outside school activities, and her/his freedom to discuss controversial issues in the classroom.

Rosner (1972) reports that total score reliability is .87, while individual factor scores have reliabilities ranging from .62 (Community Pressure) to .88 (Teacher Rapport with Principal). A reliability alpha of .93 for total score was found in this research. In addition to obtaining individual and group scores for each factor, a total morale score for each of the nine schools in the study was calculated. The PTO has been used extensively to gauge teacher morale. The Eighth Mental

Measurement Yearbook (1978) lists no fewer than 105 research studies that have employed this instrument.

The PTO manual provides norms in the form of percentile distributions of faculty medians by factor and by total score. These norms were generated from a population of 412 elementary teachers from thirty-four states and afford the researcher the opportunity to ascertain the relative morale of the sample pouplation in the era of Proposition 2½.

Data Collection

The data collection strategy called for the researcher himself to make a presentation in each of the nine participating elementary schools. This was done at scheduled faculty meetings during the week of April 25-29, 1983. This brief presentation outlined the study and asked for teacher participants. At the end of each presentation every teacher was given a large envelope containing: a cover letter describing the study, i.e., teachers' perceptions of factors that influence their work environment (see appendix), and the three part questionnaire composed of the demographic survey, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, and the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (see appendix). Teachers were asked, but not required to, return their completed questionnaires to a designated person in each school after having had at least one full week to fill out the instrument. To encourage participation in the study, each teacher returning a questionnaire was given a raffle ticket for a chance to win a one hundred dollar savings bond. These procedures

seemed justifiably supported by research which indicates that two factors which positively influence participation in survey research are personal contact with the researcher and financial incentives for participation (Duncan, 1979; Shackleton and Weld, 1982).

In order to guarantee the critically important anonymity of the participants, as well as that of the schools involved in the study, the following procedures were strictly adhered to:

- Completed questionnaires were returned in the sealed envelope provided to a designated collector who was a member of that building's staff (at which time the teacher received a raffle ticket).

- At the end of the prescribed time period (May 5), the building collector placed all of the envelopes received into a larger envelope which was then sealed.

- When the above procedures were completed in each building, another volunteer collected the large envelope from each building. This took place on May 6, 1983.

- Before returning these building envelopes to the researcher, the volunteer randomly numbered the envelopes from one to nine. When this final step was completed, these numbers were the only designation for each individual building. In effect then, this was a virtually blind study.

In all, 218 questionnaires were distributed. Of these, 190 or 87% were returned. Of the 190 returned, 13 were unusable because teachers had failed to complete whole pages of items. In addition, a computer program (described in more detail below) was designed to reject

questionnaires that did not have a minimum number of responses per factor. By this method, three more cases were rejected. Totally, 174, or 79% of the questionnaires distributed were used in the analysis.

Data Analysis

Upon receipt of the completed questionnaires, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, Bent, 1975) was employed for data analysis. Specifically, frequency distributions were used to analyze the homogeneity of the entire research population, as well as that of the nine individual schools. The one-way analysis of variance procedure was employed to compute and compare both morale and leadership scores by school. Duncan's multiple range test was then applied to these results. The Duncan, an a posteriori contrast, affords the researcher the opportunity to set significance parameters at any desired level. For the purpose of this study, the Duncan significance level was set at .05. The SPSS subprogram ANOVA was used to gauge the effects of the two leadership covariates, Consideration and Initiating Structure, on the dependent variable morale by school. Pearson correlations were computed to ascertain the relationship between the ten factors of the PTO and the two LBDQ factors. Pearson *r*'s were also produced for inter-factor correlations of the PTO. Finally, a series of one-way analysis of variance procedures was used to compare teacher morale according to the following demographic variables: sex, school assignment, years teaching, position, age, degrees, years in building, years working with principal, hours per week

on school related work, hours per week (beyond school day) actually within school, school- and system-wide committee work.

In order to handle missing data on the returned questionnaires, a specific computer program was written. This program was designed to reject any case from the population that did not have responses to a minimum number of items per PTO factor. The total number of items per factor and the minimum number of necessary responses are listed below.

Factor	No. of Items	Minimum No. Necessary
1	20	15
2	20	15
3	14	11
4	7	5
5	11	9
6	5	4
7	8	6
8	5	4
9	5	4
10	5	4

If a teacher failed to respond to the minimum number of items on any given factor, the entire case was removed from the sample population by the computer. In order to compare scores between factors, standard scores were computed. This was achieved by dividing the total number of responses by the number of items on each factor. In cases where an individual teacher skipped a few items, yet still responded to at least the minimum amount, the final factor score was divided by the number of responses.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the statistical analysis of data obtained in the study. To facilitate an orderly and understandable presentation of these data, the chapter is divided into three parts. The first of these parts is a detailed description of the sample population. Following this demographic preface, the analysis focuses on the testing of the three statistical null hypotheses. This determination is intended to shed some light on the primary research hypothesis which states: There is a positive relationship between the leader behavior of elementary school principals and the morale of teachers within their buildings, even during times of uncertainty. Finally, this chapter addresses the ten research questions dealing with selected demographic variables and their effect on teacher morale.

Demographic Findings

Table 1 illustrates the demographic composition of the sample population of 177 teachers, with the exception of the item dealing with age. On this question two teachers failed to respond so that the *n* for the item dealing with age is 175. As can be seen in Table 1, 84% of the participants in the study were female. This ratio, although quite high, is consistent with that of the district's entire elementary staff. Also reflective of the district's makeup is the fact that 73% of the respondents were classroom teachers. This appears to be a relatively young staff with 69% under the age of forty and 76% with fewer than fifteen

Table 1

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Sex

Male	26
Female	151

Present School Assignment

Primary	87
Intermediate	90

Teaching Position

Classroom Teacher	130
Other Professional Staff	47

Years Teaching

1-5 years	19
6-10 years	52
11-15 years	64
16-20 years	17
Over 20 years	25

Age

20-29	23
30-39	99
40-49	36
50-54	14
60 or over	3

Degrees

Bachelors	78
Bachelors + 15	23
Masters	55
Masters + 15	7
Masters + 30/CAGS	14

Years Teaching in Present School

Fewer than 3	95
3-10 years	55
Over 10 years	27

Years Working with Present Principal

Fewer than 3 years	99
3-10 years	68
Over 10 years	10

Hours Per Week (Beyond the School Day) Spent on Work-Related to Teaching Position

0-2 hours	26	10-15 hours	25
2-5 hours	52	Over 15 hours	13
5-10 hours	61		

Hours Per Week (Before and After Contractual School Day) Actually Spent Within the School

0 hours	32	4-5 hours	25
1-2 hours	73	Over 5 hours	12
2-3 hours	35		

Number of Teachers Serving on Committees Within Their Schools

Committee Work	98
No Comittee Work	79

Table 1 (continued)

Number of Teachers Serving on Committees with Systemwide Responsibilities	
Systemwide Committee Work	63
No Systemwide Committee Work	114

years of teaching experience. The level of education seems high with 43% having earned masters degrees or higher.

The recent reorganization of the district necessitated by the desegregation plan and Proposition 2½ is reflected in the number of years that teachers have been working in their present (at the time of the study) schools. Fifty-four percent of the population have been in their schools for fewer than three years. Further evidence of this finding is the fact that 56% of the teachers have been working with their principal for fewer than three years.

Table 1 also shows the responses to questions on the survey dealing with teacher behavior. Thirty-five percent of the teachers (the single highest frequency response to this item) report that they spend between five to ten hours per week beyond the school day, doing work that is related to their teaching positions. When queried as to the number of hours each week that they actually spend in their school buildings beyond the contractual school day, 41% reported spending one to two hours. Finally, 55% of the teachers responding claim to serve on committees within their respective schools. This figure drops to 36% for those teachers serving on committees dealing with systemwide issues.

Data Analysis

The purpose of this section is to analyze the data in order to determine whether to accept or reject the null hypotheses.

Statistical hypothesis 1 states that there is no significant difference between the morale score(s) of teachers within the sample population and those described by national norms as measured by the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO). Table 2 illustrates the median score necessary for inclusion into each percentile on the ten factors of the PTO. Also represented on this table is the median score obtained by the research sample (RS) and its relative percentile rank when compared to the national norm for each of the ten factors. As can readily be seen, the research sample reached only the 10th percentile on factors 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, and 10 (satisfaction with teaching, teacher salary, curriculum issues, teacher status, community support of education, and community pressures, respectively). On the remaining four factors, numbers 1, 3, 5, and 9 (teacher rapport with principal, rapport among teachers, teacher load, and school facilities and services, respectively) the research sample achieved the 25th percentile. The pervasiveness of low scores is also evident in the sample's total morale score. Table 3 reveals that the teachers in the study attained a total morale median score of 25.59. When this is compared to the national norm, it ranks in the 10th percentile. In other words, at least 90% of the teachers in the normative population registered higher morale scores on the PTO than did the teachers in the research sample.

Table 2

COMPARISON OF RESEARCH SAMPLE (RS) MEDIAN SCORES AND NATIONAL NORM MEDIAN SCORES WITH PERCENTILE BY PTO FACTOR

	PTO FACTORS									
%ile	1	Median RS	2	Median RS	3	Median RS	4	Median RS	5	Median RS
90	3.84		3.82		3.80		3.40		3.75	
75	3.72		3.76		3.70		3.02		3.68	
50	3.48		3.68		3.53		2.75		3.54	
25	3.11	2.89	3.59		3.28	3.21	2.31		3.30	3.09
10	2.77		3.45	2.25	3.10		2.03	1.83	3.07	

	PTO FACTORS									
%ile	6	Median RS	7	Median RS	8	Median RS	9	Median RS	10	Median RS
90	3.64		3.42		3.52		3.69		3.75	
75	3.44		3.23		3.25		3.47		3.67	
50	3.14		3.06		3.00		3.12		3.54	
25	2.89		2.83		2.74		2.78	2.39	3.35	
10	2.66	2.57	2.65	2.12	2.47	2.20	2.35		3.15	3.02

Table 3

COMPARISON OF RESEARCH SAMPLE TOTAL PTO MEDIAN SCORE WITH THAT OF THE NATIONAL NORM - WITH PERCENTILE

PTO TOTAL SCORE		
%ile	Total Score	Median RS
90	36.63	
75	34.94	
50	32.84	
25	30.18	
10	27.70	25.57

A statistical comparison confirms the significance of this finding. When the sample population's mean morale score of 26.51 was compared to the mean morale score of 31.24 generated during the standardization of the instrument, a t of 16.22 was found. This t is highly significant at the 05 level with 3198 degrees of freedom. These findings indicated that the morale of teachers in the sample is significantly different from (i.e., lower than) the national norm and, therefore, warrants the rejection of null hypothesis number one.

Narrowing the focus from the entire sample population as a whole, Table 4 shows the demographic breakdown of the nine participating elementary schools. As can be seen on the table, schools 1, 2, 5, 7, and 8 are primary schools (K-3) while 3, 4, 6, and 9 are based on the intermediate (K, 4-6) model. One of the striking features of the participating primary schools is their dearth of male teachers. Out of a

Table 4

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA BY SCHOOL

SCHOOL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
SCHOOL TYPE	PRIM.	PRIM.	INTER.	INTER.	PRIM.	INTER.	PRIM.	PRIM.	INTER.
Sex:									
Male	1	0	5	7	1	5	2	1	4
Female	11	14	23	22	19	15	19	16	7
Teachers	12	19	28	29	20	20	21	17	11
Position:									
Classroom Teacher	9	15	20	22	14	15	15	12	8
Other Professional Staff	3	4	8	7	6	5	6	5	3
Age:									
20-29	0	5	5	2	3	2	3	3	0
30-39	8	10	18	18	14	11	6	9	5
40-49	3	2	4	3	2	3	8	4	4
50-59	1	1	1	1	1	3	4	0	2
60 and over	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
Years Teaching:									
1-5 years	0	3	4	3	4	1	2	2	0
6-10 years	2	5	11	10	5	7	5	4	3
11-15 years	7	6	8	11	10	7	4	7	4
16-20 years	1	1	5	2	1	0	5	1	1
Over 20 years	2	4	0	3	0	5	5	3	3

Table 4 (continued)

SCHOOL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
SCHOOL TYPE	PRIM.	PRIM.	INTER.	INTER.	PRIM.	INTER.	PRIM.	PRIM.	INTER.
Years Teaching in Building:									
Fewer than 3	5	10	17	12	15	11	11	10	4
3-10 years	5	6	8	13	3	5	5	4	6
Over 10 years	2	3	3	4	2	4	5	3	1
Degrees:									
Bachelors	4	8	11	12	7	7	13	9	7
Bachelors + 15	3	2	3	4	2	1	4	2	2
Masters	4	6	10	12	8	7	1	6	1
Masters + 15	1	0	1	1	1	1	2	0	0
Masters + 30/CAGS	0	3	3	0	2	4	1	0	1
Years with Principal:									
Fewer than 3	5	10	21	12	10	10	12	10	9
3-10 years	7	9	7	13	6	9	9	6	2
Over 10 years	0	0	0	4	4	1	0	1	0
Hours Working Beyond School:									
0-2 hours	0	6	6	3	0	2	3	2	4
2-5 hours	0	4	8	10	8	7	7	5	3
5-10 hours	5	7	9	12	7	8	5	4	4
10-15 hours	5	2	3	3	3	3	4	2	0
Over 15 hours	2	0	2	1	2	0	2	4	0

Table 4 (continued)

SCHOOL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
SCHOOL TYPE	PRIM.	PRIM.	INTER.	INTER.	PRIM.	INTER.	PRIM.	PRIM.	INTER.
Hours Per Week Beyond Contract-Working in Building:									
0 hours	1	10	2	7	5	1	3	2	1
1-2 hours	2	7	16	17	6	7	5	5	8
2-3 hours	2	1	4	4	4	12	5	3	0
4-5 hours	4	1	4	1	4	0	5	5	1
Over 5 hours	3	0	2	0	1	0	3	2	1
Building Committees:									
Yes	10	11	14	18	8	6	12	11	8
No	2	8	14	11	12	14	9	6	3
System Committees:									
Yes	3	6	10	15	6	4	7	7	5
No	9	13	18	14	14	16	14	10	6

primary staff of 89 teachers, only five are men. Also worth noting is the fact that with the exception of school 9, the intermediate schools tend to be larger than their primary counterparts. Faculties in the sample schools range in size from eleven teachers in school 9 to 29 teachers in school 4. On all of the other demographic variables, the nine schools in the sample are remarkably homogeneous.

Table 5 summarizes the PTO morale data by school. It should be pointed out that the n for the remaining analysis is 174 teachers, a result of three questionnaires being rejected by the computer for failure to meet a minimum number of item responses per factor. An inspection of Table 5 reveals that there are significant differences in morale among the sample schools with an F probability of .01. These differences range from a high mean score of 28.10 in school 8 to a low of 24.49 in school 7. The group mean is 26.51. Interestingly, the four schools whose mean morale scores fall below the group mean are all primary schools. Thus, null hypothesis number two, which states that there is no significant difference among the morale scores of the nine schools participating in the study, as measured by the PTO, is rejected. In fact, there is a difference in morale between schools.

To determine which of the nine schools were significantly different from the others, Duncan's multiple range test was used. The ultimate objective of this procedure was to determine if those schools that were found to be different had any leadership characteristics in common. This a posteriori contrast had its significance parameter set at the .05 level. As can be seen from Table 6, the Duncan arranges the

Table 5

SUMMARY OF PTO SCORES BY SCHOOL

SCHOOL	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR
School 1	12	25.93	2.47	.71
School 2	19	26.04	3.86	.88
School 3	28	26.81	2.50	.47
School 4	28	27.64	4.39	.83
School 5	20	25.12	3.52	.79
School 6	20	27.15	2.29	.51
School 7	20	24.49	2.70	.60
School 8	16	28.11	2.36	.59
School 9	11	27.05	3.90	1.17
Total	174	26.51		

F Ratio = 2.603 df = 8/165
F Prob. = .0105

Table 6

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN MORALE BETWEEN SCHOOLS AT THE .05 LEVEL ON THE DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST

SCHOOL	MEAN			
School 8	28.10	a		
School 4	27.64	a		
School 6	27.14	a	b	
School 9	27.04	a	b	c
School 3	26.81	a	b	c
School 2	26.04	a	b	c
School 1	25.93	a	b	c
School 5	25.11		b	c
School 7	24.49			c

NOTE - Schools not sharing the same letter (a,b,c) are significantly different from each other at the .05 level. Schools that do share the same letter are not significantly different from each other.

schools from highest to lowest in morale score, and then groups and regroups together those that are not significantly different from each other. From Table 6 then, it becomes apparent that schools 8 and 4 are significantly different from schools 5 and 7, but not different from schools 6, 9, 3, 2, and 1. Likewise, school 6 is significantly different from school 7, but not from school 5. All other combinations do not show significant differences.

A breakdown of the nine schools' morale scores by factor is presented in Table 7. As can be seen, the lowest total score for any single factor is 1.90 on factor 4, teacher salary. Conversely, the highest total single factor score is 3.23 on factor 2, satisfaction with teaching.

In the area of leadership, the nine schools in the sample are also quite different. Table 8 summarizes the LBDQ-Consideration scores by schools. With an F probability of .000, the table reveals significant differences among the schools. The Consideration scores range from a high of 50.29 in school 8 to a low of 28.75 in school 1. The group mean for the sample on the Consideration factor is 38.17. This is below the mean Consideration score of 44.7 reported by Halpin in his research with educational administrators (Halpin, 1969). Once again, it is interesting to note that, of the four schools that are below the group mean, three of them are primary schools.

Applying the Duncan test to determine which schools (principals) are significantly different from the others at a .05 level, Table 9 was generated. Somewhat more complicated to read than Duncan significance

Table 7

PTO FACTOR SCORES BY SCHOOL

SCHOOL	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5	FACTOR 6	FACTOR 7	FACTOR 8	FACTOR 9	FACTOR 10
School 1	2.25	3.28	3.33	2.09	2.71	2.53	2.17	2.30	2.25	2.98
School 2	2.83	3.30	2.70	2.05	3.33	2.27	2.17	2.27	1.82	3.25
School 3	3.07	3.11	3.20	1.71	3.18	2.63	1.96	2.14	2.58	3.20
School 4	2.93	3.27	3.33	1.96	3.00	2.60	2.34	2.38	2.65	3.13
School 5	2.62	3.24	3.09	1.91	2.99	2.06	2.08	2.25	1.90	2.95
School 6	3.07	3.36	3.21	1.80	3.03	2.60	2.16	2.33	2.62	2.93
School 7	2.46	3.25	3.10	1.62	2.89	2.40	1.78	1.91	1.94	3.10
School 8	3.49	3.29	3.08	2.05	2.45	2.61	2.48	2.42	2.59	3.10
School 9	2.82	2.97	3.18	2.19	3.11	2.54	2.23	2.07	2.77	3.10
Total	2.87	3.23	3.14	1.40	3.04	2.48	2.14	2.23	2.35	3.09

Table 8

SUMMARY OF LBDQ CONSIDERATION SCORES BY SCHOOL

SCHOOL	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR
School 1	12	28.75	10.24	2.96
School 2	19	35.79	8.46	1.94
School 3	28	39.86	7.70	1.45
School 4	28	39.62	7.92	1.47
School 5	20	37.00	8.37	1.87
School 6	20	43.35	9.26	2.07
School 7	20	30.33	7.20	1.57
School 8	16	50.29	6.61	1.60
School 9	11	33.45	10.55	3.18
Total	174	33.17		

F Ratio = 10.629 df = 8/165
F Prob. = .0000

Table 9

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN LBDQ CONSIDERATION BETWEEN SCHOOLS AT THE .05 LEVEL ON THE DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST

SCHOOL	MEAN					
School 8	50.29	a				
School 6	43.35		b			
School 3	39.85		b	c		
School 4	39.62		b	c		
School 5	37.00			c		
School 2	35.78			c	d	
School 9	33.45			c	d	e
School 7	30.33				d	e
School 1	28.75					e

NOTE: Schools not sharing the same letter (a,b,c,d,e) are significantly different at the .05 level.

Table 6, Table 9 warrants a little more interpretation. This table shows that:

School 8 is significantly different from all other schools

School 6 is significantly different from 8, 5, 2, 9, 7, 1

School 3 is significantly different from 8, 7, 1

School 4 is significantly different from 8, 7, 1

School 5 is significantly different from 8, 6, 7, 1

School 2 is significantly different from 8, 6, 1

School 9 is significantly different from 8, 6

School 7 is significantly different from 8, 6, 3, 4, 5

School 1 is significantly different from 8, 6, 3, 4, 5, 2

On the second of the two LBDQ factors, Initiating Structure, the nine schools are once again quite different. Table 10 summarizes this data and reveals another highly significant F probability of .000. Mean scores on the Initiating Structure factor range from a high of 45.85 in school 3 to a low of 24.00 in school 5. The group mean is 37.90 found by Halpin (1969). Surprisingly, only two schools fall below the group mean of the present sample (37.02), indicating their means are very low. Both of these schools 5 and 2 are primary schools. The significant difference between these two schools and the rest of the sample is graphically illustrated by the Duncan groupings found in Table 11. Close inspection of Table 11 reveals that:

School 3 is significantly different from schools 7, 8, 4, 2, 5

School 1 is significantly different from schools 2, 5

School 6 is significantly different from schools 2, 5

Table 10

SUMMARY OF LBDQ INITIATING STRUCTURE SCORES BY SCHOOL

SCHOOL	N	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	STANDARD ERROR
School 1	12	43.08	8.25	2.38
School 2	19	25.00	11.59	2.66
School 3	28	45.86	5.92	1.12
School 4	28	37.00	9.42	1.75
School 5	20	24.60	7.81	1.75
School 6	20	41.90	5.67	1.27
School 7	20	37.43	7.85	1.71
School 8	16	37.23	6.46	1.57
School 9	11	41.27	6.96	2.10
Total	174	37.02		

F Ratio = 17.846 df = 8/164
F Prob. = .0000

Table 11

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN LBDQ STRUCTURE SCORE BETWEEN SCHOOLS AT THE .05 LEVEL ON THE DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST

SCHOOL	MEAN			
School 3	45.85	a		
School 1	43.08	a	b	
School 6	41.90	a	b	
School 9	41.27	a	b	
School 7	37.42		b	
School 8	37.23		b	
School 4	37.00		b	
School 2	25.00			c
School 5	24.00			c

NOTE: Schools not sharing the same letter (a,b,c,) are significantly different at the .05 level.

School 9 is significantly different from schools 2, 5

School 7 is significantly different from schools 3, 2, 5

School 8 is significantly different from schools 3, 2, 5

School 4 is significantly different from schools 3, 2, 5

School 2 is significantly different from all other schools

School 5 is significantly different from all other schools

From the data summarized in Tables 5 and 6 it was determined that there are significant differences between the morale scores of the nine schools in the sample. Tables 8 through 11 showed that there were also significant differences between the schools on both the Consideration and Initiating Structure factors of the LBDQ. However, what effect the leader behavior of principals has on the morale of teachers within their buildings, remains to be addressed.

To probe the strength of this relationship directly, LBDQ factors Consideration and Initiating Structure were used in a correlation model with Purdue total morale scores. The results of this statistical procedure are shown in Table 12. As can be seen in this table, the correlation between LBDQ Consideration and Initiating Structure with PTO total morale is .486 ($p=.001$). These results indicate a moderate relationship with highly significant probability levels.

The analysis of variance model was also employed to test the leadership/morale relationship, using Consideration and Initiating Structure as covariates with morale as the dependent variable. The results of this procedure indicate a highly significant relationship between the covariates Consideration and Initiating Structure and the

Table 12

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PTO FACTOR SCORES AND LBDQ FACTOR SCORES

PTO FACTOR NAME	LBDQ CONSIDERATION	LBDQ INITIATING STRUCTURE
Teacher rapport with principal	.864*	.493*
Satisfaction with teaching	.134*	.065
Rapport among teachers	.298*	.493*
Teacher salary	.008	.029
Teacher load	.217*	.003
Curriculum issues	.247*	.433*
Teacher status	.196*	.116
Community support for education	.215*	.145*
School facilities and services	.348*	.489*
Community pressure	.138*	.026
Total - .486*	Total - .426*	

N = 174

*p < .05

dependent variable morale, producing an F probability of .001. However, when school means were statistically adjusted to neutralize the leadership factor, the F probability jumped to .096, indicating that differences between schools are no longer significant. This finding suggests that leadership does have an effect on the morale of schools within the sample. Table 13 summarizes these findings. Table 14 shows the homogenation of morale scores after their statistical adjustment for leadership. The adjusted morale scores show no significant differences at the .05 level. Table 14 also shows the amount of adjustment made to each mean morale score when leadership was neutralized. Therefore, based on the data presented in Tables 12 and 13, the third null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between scores on the two factors of the LBDQ and the mean score on the PTO is rejected. That is to say, there is a significant relationship between the leader behavior of principals in the sample district and the morale of teachers within their buildings.

Further investigation of the correlation between leadership and morale scores only serves to underscore the findings regarding the importance of leadership to morale. Table 12 shows the very high degree of correlation (.864) that was found to exist between LBDQ factor Consideration and PTO factor 1, teacher rapport with principal. The lowest correlation between Consideration and the remaining nine factors of the PTO is with factor 4, teacher salary, in which $\underline{r}$ is .008. As was reported earlier, the correlation with the total morale score is .486. A brief analysis of the other eight PTO factors' correlations

Table 13

LEADERSHIP EFFECT ON MORALE

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Covariates	582.81	2	291.40	37.40	.001
Consideration	228.01	1	228.01	29.42	.001
Initiating Structure	120.30	1	120.30	15.52	.001
School	107.10	8	13.38	1.72	.096

Table 14

PTO SCORES BY SCHOOL BEFORE AND AFTER ADJUSTMENT FOR LEADERHIP

School	Observed Mean	Adjusted Mean	Amount Adjusted
School 1	25.93	25.97	+ .04
School 2	26.04	27.90	+ 1.83
School 3	26.81	25.73	- 1.08
School 4	27.64	27.59	- .05
School 5	25.12	26.92	+ 1.80
School 6	27.15	25.97	- 1.18
School 7	24.49	25.21	+ .72
School 8	28.11	26.80	- 1.31
School 9	27.05	26.89	- .16

with Consideration reveals the inordinate influence that PTO factor 1, teacher rapport with principal, has on the total correlation between morale and Consideration.

Table 12 also summarizes the correlations between LBDQ Initiating Structure and the ten factors of the PTO. Once again the highest correlation with Initiating Structure is PTO factor 1, teacher rapport with principal, r = .493. Also showing a high degree of correlation with Initiating Structure are factor 3, rapport among teachers (r = .493), factor 9, school facilities and services (r = .489), and factor 6, curriculum issues (r = .433). The correlation between Initiating Structure and total morale score is .426.

Inter-factor correlations for the PTO can be seen in Table 15. The two most highly correlated factors are 5 and 10, teacher load and community pressure, r = .62. Factor 7, teacher status, and factor 8, community support for education, are also highly correlated (r = .59), as are factor 4, teacher salary, and factor 7, teacher status (r = .58). The lowest inter-factor correlation is .02 between factors 3 and 5, rapport among teachers and teacher load. Factor 4, teacher salary, also has a very low correlation (.05) with factor 3, rapport among teachers. The highest correlations between factor and total scores were between total score and teacher status (.70), school facilities and services (.68), and community support of education (.66). The factors with the lowest correlations with total score were community pressure (.42) and teacher load (.41).

Table 15

PTO INTER-FACTOR CORRELATIONS AND FACTOR TOTAL SCORE CORRELATIONS

FACTOR NAME	FACT. 1	FACT. 2	FACT. 3	FACT. 4	FACT. 5	FACT. 6	FACT. 7	FACT. 8	FACT. 9	FACT. 10	TOTAL
Teacher rapport with principal 1	--	.18	.42	.07	.21	.33	.25	.22	.42	.17	.59
Satisfaction with teaching 2	.18	--	.18	.21	.17	.26	.28	.26	.12	.14	.45
Rapport among teachers 3	.42	.18	--	.05	.02	.39	.19	.18	.33	.08	.51
Teacher salary 4	.07	.21	.05	--	.05	.16	.58	.43	.25	.07	.53
Teacher load 5	.21	.17	.02	.05	--	.08	.17	.11	.10	.62	.41
Curriculum issues 6	.33	.26	.39	.16	.08	--	.27	.30	.46	.09	.62
Teacher status 7	.25	.28	.19	.58	.17	.27	--	.59	.35	.20	.70
Community support of education 8	.22	.26	.18	.43	.11	.30	.59	--	.39	.13	.66
School facilities and services 9	.42	.12	.33	.25	.10	.46	.35	.39	--	.10	.68
Community pressures 10	.17	.14	.08	.07	.62	.09	.20	.13	.10	--	.42
Total Score	.59	.45	.51	.53	.41	.62	.70	.66	.68	.42	--

To this point the data presentation in this chapter has been concerned primarily with the analysis that ultimately led to the rejection of the null hypotheses. In part three the emphasis shifts to addressing the ten research questions dealing with morale and selected demographic variables. Table 16 summarizes the results of the PTO by demographic variable. As can be seen from this table, the only demographic variable demonstrating significant differences at the .05 level is school assignment with an F probability of .008. Thus, the answer to Question 4, which asks if there is a significant difference between the morale of primary and intermediate teachers, is "yes." Since there are no significant differences among any of the other demographic variables, the answer to the remaining nine research questions is "no." There are no significant morale differences within any of these categories. The only demographic variable that had an F probability approaching significance was age (F probability .077). However, the most different cell within this category, that for teachers aged 60 or over, has an n of only three. When this cell is removed, the remaining means are very much the same.

Because significant differences were found between the morale of teachers in primary and intermediate schools, this variable was investigated more closely. The most striking difference between the two groups is the lack of males in the primary schools. This fact, as a possible explanation for the morale difference, does not hold up under closer scrutiny, however, when presented with the data in Table 16. The mean morale scores obtained by males (26.35) and females (26.53)

Table 16

SUMMARY OF PTO TOTAL SCORE BY DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

VARIABLE	(N)	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	F RATIO	F PROB.
Sex:				.065	.799
Male	26	26.35	3.59		
Female	148	26.53	3.32		
Position:				.369	.543
Classroom Teacher	129	26.60	3.33		
Other Staff	45	26.24	3.45		
Years Teaching:				.775	.509
1-5 years	19	26.37	3.92		
6-10 years	51	25.45	3.31		
11-15 years	63	26.49	3.14		
16-20 years	16	26.27	2.43		
Over 20 years	25	27.95	3.84		
School Assessment:				.720	.008
Primary	85	25.82	3.31		
Intermediate	89	27.16	3.29		
Age:				2.14	.077
20-29	22	26.11	3.76		
30-39	99	26.25	3.18		
40-49	36	26.68	3.49		
50-59	14	27.50	3.22		
60 or over	3	31.31	1.83		
Years Teaching in Present School:				.180	.834
Fewer than 3	94	26.64	3.35		
3-10 years	53	26.39	3.40		
Over 10 years	27	26.26	3.37		
Degrees:				.309	.871
Bachelors	76	26.35	2.89		
Bachelors + 15	22	26.30	2.89		
Masters	55	26.92	4.05		
Masters + 15	7	26.15	3.51		
Masters + 30/CAGS	14	26.24	3.60		

Table 16 (continued)

VARIABLE	(N)	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	F RATIO	F PROB.
Years with Principal:				1.01	.365
Fewer than 3	98	26.61	3.42		
3-10 years	66	26.17	3.27		
Over 10 years	10	27.69	3.28		
Hours Working Per Week Beyond School Day:				1.75	.140
0-2 hours	26	26.29	3.13		
2-5 hours	50	26.80	3.66		
5-10 hours	61	26.22	3.24		
10-15 hours	25	27.65	2.91		
Over 15 hours	12	24.82	3.47		
Hours Per Week Beyond Contract Working in Building:				1.50	.201
0 hours	31	26.51	3.92		
1-2 hours	72	27.12	3.37		
2-3 hours	34	26.31	2.84		
4-5 hours	25	25.66	3.28		
Over 5 hours	12	25.17	2.84		
Building Committees:				.036	.849
Yes	97	26.46	3.44		
No	77	26.56	3.27		
System Committees:				2.19	.140
Yes	61	26.00	3.48		
No	113	26.78	3.27		

are very similar. On all of the other possible demographic breakdowns, the two groups, primary and intermediate, are quite similar. Only when the independent variable, leadership, is introduced do differences begin to reappear. Once again Consideration and Initiating Structure were used as covariates in the ANOVA model, but this time with the dependent variable morale by school assignment. Table 17 reveals that a significant F probability of .001 increased to a nonsignificant F probability of .683 when the effect of leadership was statistically equalized between the two groups. As was the case between the nine schools of the study, morale differences between primary and intermediate groups seem to be explained to a significant degree by the differences in leader behavior.

Table 17

LEADERSHIP EFFECT ON MORALE BY SCHOOL ASSIGNMENT

SOURCE OF VARIANCE	SUM OF SQUARES	DF	MEAN SQUARED	F	SIGNIFICANCE OF F
Covariates	582.81	2	291.40	36.18	.001
Consideration	228.01	1	228.01	28.31	.001
Initiating Structure	120.30	1	120.30	14.93	.001
School Assignment	1.35	1	1.35	.16	.683

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This study was designed to investigate the relationship between the leader behavior of elementary school principals and the morale of teachers within their buildings during times of uncertainty. A total of 190 teachers from an urban school district in Western Massachusetts participated in the study. These 190 teachers represented eighty-seven percent of the population of 218 teachers who received questionnaires and requests for their participation. Ultimately, 173 questionnaires were found to be usable. The questionnaire instrument itself consisted of three parts: a demographic survey, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), and the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO) (see appendix). The study was conducted over the two week period from April 25 to May 5, 1983. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was employed for data analysis.

A possible explanation for the eighty-seven percent response rate might be the two strategies reported to be effective by Duncan (1979), and Shackleton and Weld (1982), and employed by the researcher. These were: (1) the researcher himself made introductory presentations to the faculties of each of the nine participating schools; and (2) a financial incentive strategy was used whereby each participant received a raffle ticket for a chance to win a one hundred dollar savings bond. It is also possible that the prevailing climate of uncertainty predisposed the potential population to be eager to anonymously express their feelings. On numerous occasions the researcher was told by teacher

participants how much they enjoyed completing the questionnaire, a finding which speaks to the face validity of the instruments used as well.

Analysis

The study was founded on the research hypothesis which stated: There is a positive relationship between the leader behavior of elementary school principals and the morale of teachers within their buildings, even in a climate of uncertainty. This hypothesis was evaluated through the testing of three statistical null hypotheses. The first of these null hypotheses stated: There is no significant difference between the morale scores of teachers within the sample populations and those described by national norms as measured by the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO).

The data reveal that the sample population attained a total morale score which ranked only in the tenth percentile when compared to national norms. This finding, confirmed by significance tests, warranted the rejection of the first null hypothesis. There was found to be a significant difference between the morale of the sample and the normative populations.

One can only speculate as to the possible causes of this measured low morale in the sample district. A plausible explanation might be found in the prevailing climate within the district at the time of the study. Placed in context, the low morale scores are not particularly surprising. In the two years following the passage of Proposition 2 1/2,

the teachers of the district had witnessed the elimination of 87.5 teaching positions and the closure of three schools. Another result of the financial constraints placed on cities and towns by Proposition 2½ is the fact that the teachers in the sample had been working the entire school year without a contract. To add to the unsettled climate at the time of the study, many teachers had recently received their yearly termination notices. Although most of these notices were merely self-protective devices on the part of the school committee (most would be rehired when the budget was finalized), they did represent the prospect of having to endure another summer of uncertainty. Finally, the teachers of the district (along with all teachers) found themselves being blamed for the supposed failure of public education and had seen themselves branded in the media as incompetents. This media criticism culminated during the first week of the study with the release in Washington of the scathing report entitled "A Nation at Risk."

A closer inspection of the PTO factors only serves to underscore the possible explanation for the malaise in the district. Five of the six lowest PTO factor scores (tenth percentile) seem to relate directly to the economic and psychological climate within the sample school system. These factors include:

- Satisfaction with teaching
- Teacher salary
- Teacher status
- Community support for education
- Community pressure.

What begins to emerge is a picture of teachers with very low self-esteem, who are disenchanted with their careers. They seem to feel betrayed by the community for which they work, and unappreciated for the work that they have performed.

Another indication of the prevailing low level of morale was observed by the researcher during, and shortly after the time of the study. Interested in revamping the existing curriculum, the central office administration asked for volunteers to serve on curriculum revision committees in the areas of language arts and science. Not a single teacher from the sample population freely volunteered for this necessary work. This observation echoes the hard data generated by the PTO.

Having established the relative level of morale within the district, the researcher next attempted to discern if any of the nine schools were significantly different from the others in morale. The ultimate objective of this was to help determine if these particular identified schools had leadership variables in common.

Null hypothesis two stated that: There is no significant difference between the morale scores of the nine schools participating in the study. The data reveals that schools 8 and 4 were significantly different from schools 5 and 9, but they were not significantly different from any of the other five schools. Also, school 6 was found to be significantly different from school 7. Although these results are not earth-shattering, they do warrant the rejection of null hypothesis two. There are significant differences in morale between the nine schools.

The third null hypothesis states that: There is no significant relationship between the scores on the two factors of the LBDQ and the

mean score on the PTO. That is to say, there is no relationship between leadership and morale.

This hypothesis was rejected on the basis of evidence indicating that the opposite is actually true. Results of Pearson correlations indicate that a significant relationship exists between both LBDQ Consideration and Initiating Structure, and PTO total morale score. In addition, the highest PTO single factor correlation with both Consideration and Initiating Structure was factor 1--Teacher Rapport with Principal. These findings seem to imply that as the principal's leadership scores rise, so does the morale of the teachers. However, one cannot assume that this is a causal relationship. The design of this study and the method of analysis did not allow for such a causal determination. Although less plausible, a reverse causality might be considered. That is, when teachers have high morale it might be easier for principals to achieve higher scores on the two leadership factors.

Analyzing the extremes of LBDQ and PTO scores reinforces the findings of the correlation model. School 8, the school with the highest morale (PTO scores) in the sample, also had the highest Consideration score (LBDQ). Conversely, school 7, the school with the lowest morale (PTO score) was the school with the lowest Consideration score (LBDQ). School 5 had the second lowest morale score and also the lowest score on LBDQ Initiating Structure. Collectively, four of the five schools found to be above the group mean in morale were also found to be above the group mean on both Consideration and Initiating Structure. Similarly, two of the four schools with morale below the group mean also were below the group mean on both Consideration and Initiating Structure.

Although the two remaining low morale schools had Initiating Structure scores above the group mean, they also had the two lowest scores on LBDQ Consideration. More importantly, a statistical relationship can be demonstrated. When the leadership factors of Consideration and Initiating Structure were statistically neutralized, the once significant morale differences between schools disappeared. This finding seems to indicate that there is a significant relationship between leadership and morale.

Conclusions

The major objective of the present study was to investigate the research hypothesis which stated: There is a positive relationship between the leader behavior of elementary school principals and the morale of teachers within their buildings, even in a climate of uncertainty. The three null hypotheses that were constructed to test this relationship were all rejected. As was the case in earlier research, this study found that the leader behavior of principals continues to be an influential element in teacher morale. What is most striking about the present study, however, is the finding of pervasively low morale across the sample. One can only speculate that the causes of such a phenomenon are linked to the uncertain environmental factors affecting all teachers. The combined influences of Proposition 2½, criticism of public education and public school teachers, working with no contract, and yearly termination notices appear to have taken their toll. Although leadership behavior of principals has been shown to be an important

factor in teacher morale, it is not by itself sufficiently influential to offset the deleterious effects of a troubled and uncertain environment.

In addition to addressing the primary research hypotheses, the present study probed teacher morale in light of selected demographic information. Based on these findings, the following conclusions may be drawn:

1. There is no relationship between the sex of the teacher respondent and her/his morale.

2. There is no significant relationship between the age of the teacher respondent and her/his morale.

3. There is no relationship between the respondent's teaching experience and her/his morale.

4. The morale of primary teachers was found to be significantly different from intermediate teachers'. As was the case with the nine individual schools, the differences between primary and intermediate morale disappears when the leadership effect is statistically neutralized. This seems to indicate that the district's "stronger" leaders are found in the intermediate schools.

5. There is no significant difference between the morale of classroom teachers and that of teachers who specialize in a particular subject area.

6. There is no relationship between the number of advanced degrees obtained and a teacher's morale.

7. There is no significant relationship between the number of years working with the same principal and teacher morale.

The three remaining findings seem to question some commonly held beliefs concerning the behavior of higher and lower morale teachers.

8. There is no significant relationship between teacher morale and the amount of time spent on class preparation.

9. There is no significant relationship between teacher morale and the time she/he spends within her/his school building (before and after the contractual school day).

10. There is no significant relationship between teacher morale and the amount of involvement in committee work.

Implications

If the low levels of morale identified in the sample population are found to exist among the general population of teachers the possible implications of this study are far-reaching, impacting on all aspects of the public education establishment. At the national level, where politicians have turned public education into a political football, the alarmist rhetoric of recent reports has been counterproductive. Focusing only on the system's failures, these reports have given citizens a distorted view of what public schools are actually like. This is not to suggest that public education does not face serious problems, but that positive reports, such as the rise in reading scores among black and other minority youth over the last decade, is given little political or media attention. Inferring that teachers are the

cause of "A Nation at Risk" seems irresponsible and totally insensitive to the effect of such a statement on teacher morale.

At the state level, where the responsibility to establish and maintain public schools is constitutionally vested, the potential implications of the present study are equally important. If an epidemic of low morale has swept the school systems across the state in the wake of Proposition 2½, it is the responsibility of the state legislature, through the State Department of Education, to become aware of this phenomenon. If a wide-spread problem is found to exist, it is then incumbent upon the state's legislature to address this problem. Possible legislative action might include the increase in state aid, specifically earmarked for public schools, to cities and towns and also the creation of a blue ribbon commission made up of legislators, educators, and citizens to investigate the depth of the problem, and make recommendations for its possible solution. What is most important is the possibility that the sample population might be a barometer of a trend taking place statewide. Whether this is the case or not, the issue of teacher morale is one that should be addressed by the State Department of Education.

Locally, it is important that both school committees and central office administration are aware of the possibility of low teacher morale and be willing to accept their role in both the problem and the solution. Since Proposition 2½, school committees and top administrators have been consumed by budget battles and the agonizing decisions of what and whom to cut. Because of this seemingly unavoidable

preoccupation, little attention has been paid to the feelings and attitudes of those who survived. Although morale has always been given a certain amount of lip service, little thought has actually been given to what it actually is, how it can be measured, and under what circumstances it is best nurtured.

In individual school buildings, the raising and maintaining of morale must become a constant priority for both principals and teachers alike. Principals need to realize that they may be beating dead horses and that the way to raise staff enthusiasm, a critical component in good teaching, is not through orders and threats. Teachers must realize and accept their own responsibility for their own morale.

Teachers' unions, which have grown so powerful in the last decade, find themselves with a dilemma regarding low morale among their membership. If they try to take political and economic advantage of the situation by blaming low morale on Proposition 2½, they first must draw public attention to the potential fact that low morale exists. This tactic, however, would also provide ammunition to the critics of public education. Given this potential for even greater disaster, the unions would probably be very content to elect not to know that teacher morale is low. One would expect, however, that beyond political and economic considerations, the unions have some responsibility to the morale of the membership. They could co-sponsor, along with state and local school systems, seminars that would serve as forums for discussion of the problem. They could also provide their membership with workshops dealing with the issues of morale, stress, and burnout. Finally, the

unions can be a vehicle for the improvement of the image of teachers within their communities.

Taxpayers also find themselves with a dilemma. How can they provide the high quality education necessary for an ever-evolving society while at the same time maintain an inexpensive labor force to provide that service? The primary casualty of the so-called taxpayers' revolt has been public education, and teachers feel betrayed and abandoned by their once loyal constituents. The withdrawal of public respect and support can have serious consequences for teacher morale.

The present study is not without its implications for the selection and training of the principal/leader. In this climate of uncertainty and depression, the finding that leadership remains an influential factor in teacher morale is important. It would follow that the selection of the most qualified and competent candidate for the position of principal is more critical today than at any time in recent history. Yet principal selection remains essentially a political process and as such is vulnerable to the capricious nature of the political system. The selection of both teachers and principals is one of the last remaining patronage powers of the school committeeman/politician and one that is not likely to be relinquished in the near future.

In the absence of a strict, clearly defined principal selection process, the next option for leadership improvement is through leadership training. This training might be offered through the State Department of Education on an ongoing basis for all principals. Beginning with the awareness of how the principal's behavior affects the morale of teachers in their schools, these training sessions would help to

clarify the meaning of the term morale, and help to make it more than a worn-out cliche. Formal leadership training sessions might be based on a model, such as Blake and Mouton's "Managerial Grid" (1979) and would work to optimize the principal's member satisfaction and task behaviors.

Finally, the principal/leader needs to make staff morale a priority for her/his school. They must dare to open a continuing, honest dialogue with teachers concerning the prevailing morale within their buildings and the role that each plays in its establishment. In order to increase teachers' commitment to the school and at the same time address their need for self-esteem and self-realization, this dialogue could be expanded to include teachers in both the goal-setting and decision-making processes of the school.

Ultimately, the implications of low teacher morale are more devastating for the student/consumer. The possibility of being educated by a disinterested, apathetic, demoralized teacher is unthinkable. If the low morale phenomenon is as pervasive in the general population as it was found to be in the sample, it will take the combined efforts of legislators, administrators, school committees, principals, teachers, unions, and parents to head off the possibility of an educational holocaust.

Suggestions for Future Research

In light of the findings of the present study, the following suggestions for future research are made:

1. To assess the effects on morale of Proposition 2 1/2, a large group random sampling questionnaire study could be conducted across the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

2. To assess if tax-slashing legislation is a primary contributor to low teacher morale, morale studies in other states (e.g., California, Proposition 13) could be conducted, while at the same time similar studies could be conducted in states without such legislation.

3. To assess the influence of environmental factors on morale, a follow-up study within the sample district could be conducted when the environment is more favorable.

4. To assess just how "contagious" morale could be, controlled studies in which individual low morale teachers are placed with faculties having identified high morale could be conducted.

5. A controlled study could be conducted to assess what effect principals scoring high in both Consideration and Initiating Structure might have when introduced as leaders into low morale schools.

6. Pre and post studies to assess the effect of pay raises on the morale of teachers would assess the effect of pure economic factors.

7. A controlled study could be conducted to assess what effect principals scoring low in both Consideration and Initiating Structure might have when introduced as leaders into high morale schools.

8. To gauge the influence of leadership training on teacher morale, pre and post studies could be conducted, assessing teacher morale before and after the principal receives training.

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APPENDICES

PLEASE DO NOT SIGN YOUR NAME TO THESE PAGES

Dear Colleague,

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this study which is designed to explore teachers' perceptions of factors that influence the educational environment in which they work. The questionnaire that you will fill out is divided into three sections. Part I asks for demographic information that will help to describe the population of teacher participants. Part II is the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) that asks you how often you feel your principal engages in certain leadership behaviors. The final section is the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO) which gives you the opportunity to think about and respond to various factors that affect your jobs.

Please return the completed questionnaires in the sealed envelope provided by May 5th. Be assured that all individual participants, as well as the schools in which they work, will be totally anonymous. This is a "blind" study designed so that no one, including myself, will be able to ascertain from which school the completed questionnaires have come.

I sincerely appreciate your participation in this study. Thank you for your time.

Paul Mengel

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please check those which apply:

1. Sex: __ Female __ Male

2. Present school assignment: __ Primary __ Intermediate

3. Position: __ classrm teacher __ all other prof'l staff

4. Number of years teaching:
   - __ 1 - 5 years
   - __ 6 - 10 years
   - __ 11 - 15 years
   - __ 16 - 20 years
   - __ over 20 years

5. Age:
   - __ 20 - 29
   - __ 30 - 39
   - __ 40 - 49
   - __ 50 - 59
   - __ 60 or over

6. Highest degree earned:
   - __ Bachelors
   - __ Bachelors + 15
   - __ Masters
   - __ Masters + 15
   - __ Masters + 30/CAGS

7. Number of years teaching in this building:
   - __ fewer than 3 years
   - __ 3 to 10 years
   - __ over 10 years

8. Number of years working with your present principal:
   - __ fewer than 3 years
   - __ 3 to 10 years
   - __ over 10 years

9. Approximately how many hours per week do you spend (beyond your school day) on work related to your position?
   - __ 0 - 2 hours
   - __ 2 - 5 hours
   - __ 5 - 10 hours
   - __ 10 - 15 hours
   - __ over 15 hours

10. Approximately how many of those hours per week (before and after your contractual school day) do you actually spend WITHIN your school building?
    - __ 0
    - __ 1 - 2 hours
    - __ 2 - 3 hours
    - __ 4 - 5 hours
    - __ over 5 hours

11. Have you served on any committees within your building during the past year?
__ yes __ no If so, how many? _____

12. Have you served on any system-wide committees during the past year?
__ yes __ no If so, how many? _____

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Developed by staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies

Following is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your principal. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. This is not a test of ability. It simply asks you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your principal.

DIRECTIONS:

a. READ each item carefully.
b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.
c. DECIDE whether he/she always, often, occasionally, seldom, or never acts as described by the item.
d. DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A = Always
B = Often
C = Occasionally
D = Seldom
E = Never

1. Does personal favors for group members . . . . . A B C D E
2. Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group . . . . . A B C D E
3. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group . . . . . A B C D E
4. Tries out his/her new ideas with the group . . . . . A B C D E
5. Acts as the real leader of the group . . . . . A B C D E
6. Is easy to understand . . . . . A B C D E
7. Rules with an iron hand . . . . . A B C D E
8. Finds time to listen to group members . . . . . A B C D E
9. Criticizes poor work . . . . . A B C D E
10. Gives advance notice of changes . . . . . A B C D E

A = Always
B = Often
C = Occasionally
D = Seldom
E = Never

11. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned . . . . . A B C D E

12. Keeps to himself/herself . . . . . A B C D E

13. Looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members . . . . . A B C D E

14. Assigns group members to particular tasks . . . . . A B C D E

15. Is the spokesperson of the group . . . . . A B C D E

16. Schedules the work to be done . . . . . A B C D E

17. Maintains definite standards of performance . . . . . A B C D E

18. Refuses to explain his/her actions . . . . . A B C D E

19. Keeps the group informed . . . . . A B C D E

20. Acts without consulting the group . . . . . A B C D E

21. Backs up the members in their actions . . . . . A B C D E

22. Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines . . . . . A B C D E

23. Treats all group members as his/her equals. . . . . A B C D E

24. Encourages the use of uniform procedures . . . . . A B C D E

25. Gets what he/she asks for from his/her superiors . . . . A B C D E

26. Is willing to make changes . . . . . A B C D E

27. Makes sure that his/her part in the organization is understood by group members . . . . . A B C D E

28. Is friendly and approachable . . . . . A B C D E

29. Asks that group members follow standard rules and reguations . . . . . A B C D E

30. Fails to take necessary action . . . . . A B C D E

A = Always
B = Often
C = Occasionally
D = Seldom
E = Never

31. Makes group members feel at ease when talking with them . . . . . A B C D E

32. Lets group members know what is expected of them . . . . A B C D E

33. Speaks as the representative of the group . . . . . A B C D E

34. Puts suggestions made by the group into operation . . . . A B C D E

35. Sees to it that group members are working up to capacity . . . . . A B C D E

36. Lets other people take away his/her leadership in the group . . . . . A B C D E

37. Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members . . . . . A B C D E

38. Gets group approval in important matters before going ahead . . . . . A B C D E

39. Sees to it that the work of group members is coordinated . . . . . A B C D E

40. Keeps the group working together as a team . . . . . A B C D E

THE PURDUE TEACHER OPINIONAIRE

Prepared by Ralph R. Bentley
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This instrument is designed to provide you with the opportunity to express your opinions about your work as a teacher and various school problems in your particular school situation. There are no right or wrong responses, so do not hesitate to mark the statements frankly.

Read each statement carefully. Then indicate whether you agree, probably agree, probably disagree, or disagree with each statement. Mark your answers in the following manner:

If you agree with the statement, circle "A" . . . . . A PA PD D

If you are somewhat uncertain, but probably agree with the statement, circle "PA" . . . . . A PA PD D

If you are somewhat uncertain, but probably disagree with the statement, circle "PD" . . . . . A PA PD D

If you disagree with the statement, circle "D" . . . . . A PA PD D

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1. Details, "red tape," and required reports absorb too much of my time . . . . . A PA PD D

2. The work of individual faculty members is appreciated and commended by our principal . . . . . A PA PD D

3. Teachers feel free to criticize administrative policy at faculty meetings called by our principal . . . . . A PA PD D

4. The faculty feels that their suggestions pertaining to salaries are adequately transmitted by the administration to the school committee . . . . . A PA PD D

5. Our principal shows favoritism in his relations with the teachers in our school . . . . . A PA PD D

6. Teachers in this school are expected to do an unreasonable amount of recordkeeping and clerical work . . . . . A PA PD D

7. My principal makes a real effort to maintain close contact with the faculty . . . . . A PA PD D

8. Community demands upon the teacher's time are unreasonable . . . . . A PA PD D

9. I am satisfied with the policies under which pay raises are granted . . . . . A PA PD D

10. My teaching load is greater than that of most of the other teachers in our school . . . . . A PA PD D

11. The extra-curricular load of the teachers in our school is unreasonable . . . . . A PA PD D

12. Our principal's leadership in faculty meetings challenges and stimulates our professional growth . . . . . A PA PD D

13. My teaching position gives me the social status in the community that I desire . . . . . A PA PD D

14. The number of hours a teacher must work is unreasonable . . . . . A PA PD D

15. Teaching enables me to enjoy many of the material and cultural things I like . . . . . A PA PD D

16. My school provides me with adequate classroom supplies and equipment . . . . . A PA PD D

17. Our school has a well-balanced curriculum . . . . . A PA PD D

18. There is a great deal of griping, arguing, taking sides, and feuding among our teachers . . . . . A PA PD D

19. Teaching gives me a great deal of personal satisfaction . . . . . A PA PD D

20. The curriculum of our school makes reasonable provision for student individual differences . . . . A PA PD D

21. The procedures for obtaining materials and services are well defined and efficient . . . . . A PA PD D

22. Generally, teachers in our school do not take advantage of one another . . . . . A PA PD D

23. The teachers in our school cooperate with each other to achieve common, personal, and professional objectives . . . . . A PA PD D

24. Teaching enables me to make my greatest contribution to society . . . . . A PA PD D

25. The curriculum of our school is in need of major revisions . . . . . A PA PD D

26. I love to teach . . . . . A PA PD D

27. If I could plan my career again, I would choose teaching . . . . . A PA PD D

28. Experienced faculty members accept new and younger members as colleagues . . . . . A PA PD D

29. I would recommend teaching as an occupation to students of high scholastic ability . . . . . A PA PD D

30. If I could earn as much money in another occupation, I would stop teaching . . . . . A PA PD D

31. The school schedule places my classes at a disadvantage. . . . . A PA PD D

32. Within the limits of financial resources, the school tries to follow a generous policy regarding fringe benefits, professional travel, professional study, etc. . . . . A PA PD D

33. My principal makes my work easier and more pleasant . . . . . A PA PD D

34. Keeping up professionally is too much of a burden . . . . . A PA PD D

35. Our community makes its teachers feel as though they are a real part of the community . . . . . A PA PD D

36. Salary policies are administered with fairness and justice . . . . . A PA PD D

37. Teaching affords me the security I want in an occupation . . . . . A PA PD D

38. My school principal understands and recognizes good teaching procedures . . . . . A PA PD D

39. Teachers clearly understand the policies governing salary increases . . . . . A PA PD D

40. My clases are used as a "dumping ground" for problem students . . . . . A PA PD D

41. The lines and methods of communication between teachers and the principal in our school are well developed and maintained . . . . . A PA PD D

42. My teaching load in this school is unreasonable . . . A PA PD D

43. My principal shows a real interest in my department . . . . . A PA PD D

44. Our principal promotes a sense of belonging among the teachers in our school . . . . . A PA PD D

45. My heavy teaching load unduly restricts my nonprofessional activities . . . . . A PA PD D

46. I find my contacts with students, for the most part, highly satisfying and rewarding . . . . . A PA PD D

47. I feel that I am an important part of this school system . . . . . A PA PD D

48. The competency of the teachers in our school compares favorably with that of teachers in other schools with which I am familiar . . . . . A PA PD D

49. My school provides the teachers with adequate audio-visual aids and projection equipment . . . . . A PA PD D

50. I feel successful and competent in my present position . . . . . A PA PD D

51. I enjoy working with student organizations, clubs, and societies . . . . . A PA PD D

52. Our teaching staff is congenial to work with . . . . A PA PD D

53. My teaching associates are well prepared for their jobs . . . . . A PA PD D

54. Our school faculty has a tendency to form into cliques . . . . . A PA PD D

55. The teachers in our school work well together . . . . A PA PD D

56. I am at a disadvantage professionally because other teachers are better prepared to teach than I am . . . . . A PA PD D

57. Our school provides adequate clerical services for the teachers . . . . . A PA PD D

58. As far as I know, the other teachers think I am a good teacher . . . . . A PA PD D

59. Library facilities and resources are adequate for the grade or subject area which I teach . . . . . A PA PD D

60. The "stress and strain" resulting from teaching makes teaching undesirable for me . . . . . A PA PD D

61. My principal is concerned with the problems of the faculty and handles these problems sympathetically . . . . . A PA PD D

62. I do not hesitate to discuss any school problem with my principal . . . . . A PA PD D

63. Teaching gives me the prestige I desire . . . . . A PA PD D

64. My teaching job enables me to provide a satisfactory standard of living for my family . . . . . A PA PD D

65. The salary schedule in our school adequately recognizes teacher competency . . . . . A PA PD D

66. Most of the people in this community understand and appreciate good education . . . . . A PA PD D

67. In my judgment, this community is a good place to raise a family . . . . . A PA PD D

68. This community respects its teachers and treats them like professional persons . . . . . A PA PD D

69. My principal acts as though he is interested in me and my problems . . . . . A PA PD D

70. My school principal supervises rather than "snoopervises" the teachers in our school . . . . . A PA PD D

71. It is difficult for teachers to gain acceptance by the people in this community . . . . . A PA PD D

72. Teachers' meetings as now conducted by our principal waste the time and energy of the staff . . . . . A PA PD D

73. My principal has a reasonable understanding of the problems connected with my teaching assignment . . . . . A PA PD D

74. I feel that my work is judged fairly by my principal . . . . . A PA PD D

75. Salaries paid in this school system compare favorably with salaries in other systems with which I am familiar . . . . . A PA PD D

76. Most of the actions of students irritate me . . . . A PA PD D

77. The cooperativeness of teachers in our school helps make my work more enjoyable . . . . . A PA PD D

78. My students regard me with respect and seem to have confidence in my professional ability . . . . . A PA PD D

79. The purposes and objectives of the school cannot be achieved by the present curriculum . . . . A PA PD D

80. The teachers in our school have a desirable influence on the values and attitudes of their students . . . . . A PA PD D

81. This community expects its teachers to meet unreasonable personal standards . . . . . A PA PD D

82. My students appreciate the help I give them with their school work . . . . . A PA PD D

83. To me there is no more challenging work than teaching . . . . . A PA PD D

84. Other teachers in our school are appreciative of my work . . . . . A PA PD D

85. As a teacher in this community, my nonprofessional activities outside of school are unduly restricted . A PA PD D

86. As a teacher, I think I am as competent as most teachers . . . . . A PA PD D

87. The teachers with whom I work have high professional ethics . . . . . A PA PD D

88. Our school curriculum does a good job of preparing students to become enlightened and competent citizens . . . . . A PA PD D

89. I really enjoy working with my students . . . . . A PA PD D

90. The teachers in our school show a great deal of initiative and creativity in their teaching assignments . . . . . A PA PD D

91. Teachers in our community feel free to discuss controversial issues in their classes . . . . . A PA PD D

92. My principal tries to make me feel comfortable when he visits my classes . . . . . A PA PD D

93. My principal makes effective use of the individual teacher's capacity and talent . . . . . A PA PD D

94. The people in this community, generally, have a sincere and wholehearted interest in the school system . . . . . A PA PD D

95. Teachers feel free to go to the principal about problems of personal and group welfare . . . . . A PA PD D

96. This community supports ethical procedures regarding the appointment and reappointment of members of the teaching staff . . . . . A PA PD D

97. This community is willing to support a good program of education . . . . . A PA PD D

98. Our community expects the teachers to participate in too many social activities . . . . . A PA PD D

99. Community pressures prevent me from doing my best as a teacher . . . . . A PA PD D

100. I am well satisfied with my present teaching position . . . . . A PA PD D